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A GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

ORIGINAL EDITION BY

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Preface to the Revised Edition

IN the present edition the publishers have deemed it advisable, in deference to the prevailing method of teaching language, to make certain changes in the arrangement of the book.

Without altering the text to any appreciable extent, they have removed many of the notes scattered through the book. These notes, purely explanatory, while of great value to the teacher, are of little value to the learner.

They have deemed it advisable to accustom the pupil to the phraseology of Analysis at an early stage of the study of Grammar, and, accordingly, examples bearing upon that subject have been introduced where necessary.

Although many exercises in Synthesis are found in other parts of the book, yet a section has been added in which the work in synthesis is more thoroughly graded and systematized. The rules and examples in Punctuation have been brought within the comprehension of the learner.

In order more fully to meet the requirements of the course of to-day in English, sections have been added on Words Frequently Incorrectly Used, Abbreviations, Letter Writing, and Composition.

The effort has been to make the Grammar, in every way, a thoroughly practical and usable book for the class-room. It is believed that the changes that have been made will enhance the value of a book which for many years has been an object of affection to many teachers.

Preface to the Original Edition

THE author, having in great measure rewritten his English Grammar, presents it once more to the consideration of the teachers of the country. The work, as now offered, is the result of long experience in the classroom, and of no little reading and study. The English language and its literature have been for many years the main subjects of the author's inquiry, and he has endeavored in this volume to give the results of his observations in the form which his experience as a teacher has convinced him to be the best adapted to the wants of the learner.

The points aimed at have been twofold:

First, to give some knowledge of grammar in general. This is the more necessary, as most of those who study English grammar study no other language, and have no other means of studying the laws of language as a means of expressing thought.

Second, to set forth the forms and laws peculiar to the English language. The English has, indeed, been called, somewhat irreverently, "the grammarless tongue." Its inflections, it must be confessed, are meagre, as compared with those of the Latin and Greek. Such is the condition of almost every modern tongue. Yet our English has its idioms, as every foreigner learns to his cost, and is not entirely without its inflections. An accurate knowledge of these idioms and inflections is of incalculable value to every one who would be at home in the use of the language.

There is an opinion widely prevalent among the teachers of classical schools that boys fitting for college have no

need to study English grammar. From that opinion the author begs leave respectfully, but most earnestly, to dissent. If he mistakes not, a growing majority of those who are called upon to examine candidates for admission to college will bear him out in his position. The study of Latin and Greek gives, indeed, a knowledge of the grammar of those languages, and some knowledge of grammar in general, but it does *not* give a knowledge of English grammar. Does Latin grammar teach a boy our common rules for Spelling, which are a guide to the correct writing of not less than twenty thousand English words? Does it teach him the origin, form, and uses of the English Possessive? Does it, to take one instance out of hundreds that might be named, teach him the syntax of the phrase "For *David* thy father's sake"? Does it teach him the rules for the formation of the English Plural?—the peculiarities of the Past Participle Active? Does it not lead him into grave mistakes in regard to the forms and uses of the English verb?

A word as to the method pursued. The author has endeavored to bear in mind that he was writing, not a treatise for the learned, but a text-book for learners. For such a book,—

The first and most imperative demand is CLEARNESS,—clearness of arrangement and clearness of expression.

Next and hardly less imperative is the demand that the more and the less important should be carefully discriminated, and the difference plainly set forth to the eye.

A third imperative demand is that the rules, definitions, and other matter to be committed to memory, should be expressed with the utmost possible conciseness.

A fourth requisite is that every rule and definition should be supported and illustrated by a goodly array of apt practical examples. These are as necessary in teaching grammar as sums are in teaching arithmetic.

How far these things have been secured is for the reader to judge.

J. S. H.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

English Grammar is that study which treats of the correct use of the English language.

Grammar is divided into four parts; namely, ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

Orthography treats of *Letters;* **Etymology,** of *Words;* **Syntax,** of *Sentences;* and **Prosody,** of *Versification.*

FIRST PART

ORTHOGRAPHY

Orthography treats of Letters.

Orthography treats first of letters taken separately, and then of the mode of forming them into syllables and words, which is called spelling.

I. LETTERS TAKEN SEPARATELY

Letters are written characters or signs used to represent certain sounds of the human voice.

A letter that is not sounded in speaking is called a *silent* letter.

The letters of any Language are called its **Alphabet.**

The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants. Consonants are subdivided into Mutes and Semivowels.

A **Vowel** can be fully sounded by itself.

A **Consonant** cannot be fully sounded unless in connection with a vowel.

This classification has its foundation in the action of the organs in uttering the letters.

When the mouth, throat, and other organs of speech are opened in a particular position, and the voice is allowed

to flow out in a continuous and uniform current, without any change in the position of the organs, the sound so formed is called a **Vowel.** In this manner we may prolong the sound of *a* indefinitely, or until out of breath. If, while the voice is thus issuing from the mouth, the current of sound is interrupted by a partial compression of the organs, the sound becomes a **Semi-vowel.** Thus, while prolonging the sound of *a*, if we press the tongue upon the upper part of the mouth, but allow the voice still to proceed, the sound becomes that of the letter *l*, as in the word *ale.* If this compression becomes so great as actually to close the organs, the sound ceases, and in the very act of ceasing gives rise to a **Mute.** Thus, in the case just mentioned, if instead of pressing the tongue upon the roof of the mouth, we press it against the teeth, and entirely stop the passage of the voice, the actual termination of the sound is that indicated by the letter *t*, as in the word *ate.* This process may be reversed. The letter *t* may be formed first and the vowel follow it, as in pronouncing the word *tale.* In this case the mute is at the very beginning of sound.

A **Mute,** then, is the mere commencement or termination of the sound on opening or closing the organs; a **Semi-vowel** is a partial interruption or modification of the sound, caused by changing the position of the organs during utterance; and a **Vowel** is the very sound itself prolonged without change.

Vowels

The VOWELS are *a, e, i, o, u,* and sometimes *w* and *y.* All the other letters are CONSONANTS.

W and *y* are consonants when they precede a vowel sound in the same syllable; as, *won, young;* but are vowels in all other places; as, *boy, law.*

A **Diphthong** is the union of two vowels in one sound; as, *oi* in *voice.*

A **Proper Diphthong** is one in which both the vowels are sounded. The proper diphthongs are two; namely, *oi* and *ou*, as in *loin, loud.*

An **Improper Diphthong** is one in which only one vowel is sounded; as, *oa* in *boat.* The improper diphthongs are numerous. Strictly speaking, they are not diphthongs, but merely single vowel sounds preceded or followed by other vowels that are not sounded.

A **Triphthong** is the union of three vowels in one sound; as, *ieu* in *adieu.*

The triphthongs are three in number, *eau, ieu, iew;* as in *beauty, lieutenant, review.* Like improper diphthongs, they contain only one vowel sound.

U after *q* is never considered as part of a diphthong or of a triphthong.

Consonants

The Consonants are divided into MUTES and SEMI-VOWELS.

The Mutes and Semi-vowels may be distinguished both by the name and by the sound.

In naming the mutes, the accompanying vowel usually follows; as, *pe, be;* in naming the semi-vowels, the accompanying vowel precedes; as, *ef, el.*

In sounding the mutes, the voice is stopped short, as in *ap;* in sounding the semi-vowels, the voice may be prolonged, as in *al.*

The mutes are *b, d, k, p, q, t,* and *c* and *g* hard.

The semi-vowels are *f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, x, z; c* and *g* soft, and *w* and *y,* when they are not vowels.

Four of the semi-vowels, *l, m, n, r,* are also called LIQUIDS.

The consonants are sometimes divided according to the part of the vocal organs by which they are formed. The principal divisions of this sort are *labials, dentals, palatals, gutturals, nasals,* and *linguals.*

Labials are formed chiefly by the *lips;* Dentals, by the *teeth;* Palatals, by the *palate;* Gutturals, by the *throat;* Nasals, by the *nose;* and Linguals, by the *tongue.*

The Labials are *p, b, f, v;* the Dentals, *t, d, c* soft, *s, z;* the Palatals, *g* soft and *j;* the Gutturals, *k, q,* and *c* and *g* hard; the Nasals, *m* and *n;* and the Linguals, *l* and *r.*

Exercise.—Classify the letters of the following words according to the divisions named above—*i. e.,* in each word name: 1, the vowels; 2, the consonants; 3, the mutes; 4, the semi-vowels; 5, the liquids; 6, the labials, etc.:

Multitudinous, frequently, upheaval, influential, algebra, robbery, lieutenant, grotesque, reviewing, ocean, herbaceous, knowledge, slaughter, employer, thievish, joyfully, willow, willingly, yielding.

II. WORDS AND SYLLABLES

A **Word** is a collection of letters used together to represent some idea.

A **Syllable** is so much of a word as can be pronounced by one impulse of the voice; as, *con* in *contain.*

Spelling is putting letters together correctly so as to form syllables and words.

There are as many syllables in a word as there are vowels and diphthongs, not counting those which are silent or unsounded.

A word of one syllable is called a **Monosyllable;** of two, a **Dissylable;** of three, a **Trisyllable;** of more than three, a **Polysyllable.**

Example.—Truth is a *monosyllable;* truth-ful, a *dissyllable;* truth-ful-ness, a *trisyllable;* un-truth-ful-ness, a *polysyllable.*

Exercise.—To what class does each of the following words belong?

Nation, uprightness, incomprehensible, authority, frequent, plague, opportunity, horse, element, elementary, robber, vowel, consonant.

RULES FOR SPELLING

RULE I.—*Y* final

Part 1.—*Y* final, preceded by a consonant, is changed into *i* on taking a suffix; as, *fanc-y*, *fanc-i-ful* (not *fanc-y-ful*).

A suffix is a letter or syllable added to the end of a word.

Exception 1.—Before *ous*, *y* sometimes becomes *e;* as, *beaut-y*, *beaut-e-ous*.

Exception 2.—Before *ing*, *y* is not changed; as, *tarr-y*, *tarr-y-ing*.

Part 2.—*Y* final, preceded by a vowel, is not changed on taking a suffix; as, *play*, *play-er*.

Exceptions.—*Day*, which makes *daily; lay*, *pay*, and *say*, which make *laid*, *paid*, and *said*, together with various other derivatives and compounds, as *mislaid*, *unpaid*, *unsaid*.

Exercises.—Write the words formed by adding *ful* to *mercy*, *plenty*, *bounty*, *duty*, *pity;* by adding *es* and *ing* to *cry*, *pry*, *try*, *apply*, *deny*, *rely;* by adding *er* and *est* to *merry*, *sorry*, *saucy*, *holy;* by adding *hood* to *likely; craft* to *handy; ed* to *quarry*, *journey; ful* to *beauty*, *pity; ous* to *glory*, *pity; es* to *melody; ous* to *melody; ety* to *gay; ly* to *gay*, *witty; er* to *betray*, *witty; ing* to *journey*.

Write ten examples of *y* final changed to *i*, under Part 1 of the Rule.

Five examples of *y* final becoming *e*, under Exception 1.

Five examples of *y* final not changed, under Exception 2.

Ten examples of *y* final not changed, under Part 2 of the Rule.

RULE II.—*E* final, silent

Part 1.—*E* final, silent, on taking a suffix beginning with a vowel, is dropped; as, *care, car-ing.*

Exception 1.—*Ie*, on taking the suffix *ing*, is changed into *y;* as, *die, dy-ing.*

Exception 2.—*Dye* (to color), *hoe*, and *shoe* do not drop *e* on taking the suffix *ing;* as, *dye-ing, hoe-ing, shoe-ing.*

Exception 3.—*Singe, swinge,* and *tinge* do not drop *e* on taking the suffix *ing.* This is to retain the soft sound of the *g*, and to distinguish them from the corresponding forms of *sing, swing, ting.* Thus: *sing-ing, swing-ing, ting-ing; singe-ing, swinge-ing, tinge-ing.*

Exception 4.—*Ce* and *ge*, on taking a suffix beginning with *a, o,* or *u,* do not drop the *e.* This is to retain the soft sound of the *c* and *g.* Thus: *service-able,* not *servic-able; change-able,* not *chang-able.*

Part 2.—*E* final, silent, on taking a suffix beginning with a consonant, is not dropped; as, *care, care-ful.*

Exceptions.—*Judgment, lodgment, abridgment, acknowledgment, argument; wisdom, nursling; duly, truly, awful,* with some corresponding derivatives of *due* and *true,* such as *duty, dutiful, truth, truthful.*

Exercises.—Write the words formed by adding *ing* to *bite, force, revive;* by adding *able* to *admire, adore, deplore; en* to *ripe; ing* to *smoke, tie, pave, trace, lie; ness* to *ripe, repulsive; ical* to *sphere; ant* to *dispute; some* to *tire; ment* to *pave; able* to *service, cure, marriage, trace; ible* to *defense; ous* to *fame, courage; less* to *defense.*

Write ten examples of *e* final dropped, under Part 1 of the Rule.

Five examples of *ie* changed to *y*, under Exception 1.

Ten examples of *e* final not dropped, under Part 2 of the Rule.

RULE III.—Words ending in *ll*

Words ending in *ll* drop one *l* on taking a suffix beginning with a consonant; as, *full, fulness;* also sometimes on taking a prefix; as, *till, un-til;* also in such compounds as *armful, handful, spoonful,* etc.

Exercises.—Write the words formed by adding to *all* the words *though, together;* by combining *with* and *all;* by combining *arm* and *full; all* and *most; all* and *ways; full* and *fill; well* and *come; use* and *full.*

Write ten examples of *l* dropped on taking a suffix.

Ten examples of *l* dropped on taking a prefix.

RULE IV.—Doubling the Final Consonant

In words accented on the last syllable, a final consonant, if single, and if preceded by a single vowel, is doubled on taking a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *permit, permit-t-ing.*

Monosyllables, being always accented, come, of course, under this rule.

Here are four conditions:

1. The last syllable must have the accent.
2. It must end in a single consonant.
3. This single consonant must be preceded by a single vowel.
4. The suffix must begin with a vowel.

There are more than sixty words about which there is a disagreement among lexicographers as to whether the

final consonant should or should not be doubled. These words, ending chiefly in *l*, conform to the three other conditions of the rule, but are not accented on the last syllable. Webster and those who accept him as an authority do not double the final consonant in these cases. Worcester and his English predecessors, Richardson, Walker, Johnson, and others, double the final consonant. Worcester writes *travel, travelling, traveller; worship, worshipping, worshipper.* Webster writes *travel, traveling, traveler; worship, worshiping, worshiper.*

The words in question are the following: *worship, kidnap, compromit, bias; carburet, sulphuret,* and some other like words in chemistry; and the following fifty-three ending in *l;* namely, *apparel, bevel, bowel, embowel, cancel, carol, cavil, channel, chisel, counsel, cudgel, dishevel, drivel, duel, enamel, equal, gambol, gravel, grovel, hatchel, housel, jewel, kennel, label, laurel, level, libel, marshal, marvel, model, panel, empanel, parallel, parcel, pencil, peril, imperil, pistol, pommel, quarrel, ravel, unravel, revel, rival, rowel, shovel, shrivel, snivel, tassel, trammel, travel, tunnel, victual.*

Exercises.—Write the words formed by adding *ing* and *ed* to *remit, impel; ist* to *drug, machine, novel, natural; er* to *revel; ed* to *fulfil, rub, fail, refer; ing* to *squat, sail, gallop, hum; ant* to *assist; ent* to *excel; ine* to *adamant; ate* to *alien, origin; en* to *red, moist, fright; ar* to *consul; er* to *propel; ous* to *mountain; y* to *mud, meal, sleep; ee* to *commit, absent, patent; ard* to *slug, drunk.*

In forming each combination, give the rule applicable to it.

Write ten examples of doubling the final consonant under the rule.

Five examples in which the first condition only is wanting.

Five, in which the *second* only is wanting.

Five, in which the *third* only is wanting.

Five, in which the *fourth* only is wanting.

RULE V.—The Terminations *eive* and *ieve*

In such words as *receive, relieve, ei* is used if the letter *c* precedes; as, *receive, deceive;* but *ie* is used if any other letter precedes; as, *relieve, believe.*

Miscellaneous Exercises

Combine the following words and suffixes, making the necessary changes; and show in each case the application of the rule:

1. Add *ing* to *live, assail, compel, repent; est* to *lively; so* to *all; ish* to *boy; ed* to *commit; ment* to *commit.*
2. Add *ness* to *happy, lovely; full* to *art; some* to *whole; y* to *smoke, trick; able* to *love; th* to *true; full* to *truth; ness* to *truthful; ty* to *due; full* to *duty; ly* to *dutiful.*
3. Add *ing* to *copy, induce, propel, embroil, infer; ed* to *copy, delay; ly* to *whole; ment* to *induce; ence* to *infer.*
4. Add *er* to *refine, libel; ment* to *amaze, refine; ing* to *amaze, whip; ous* to *glory, beauty; ed* to *sulphuret; ful* to *beauty.*
5. Add *some* to *full; full* to *awe; fare* to *well; ing* to *abet, consent, remit, differ; ment* to *fulfil.*

Write the words so combined.
Draw a line through the silent letters.
Mark the accented syllables.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

What is Grammar? Name its divisions. Of what does Orthography treat? Under what head is Spelling placed? What are Letters? What is an Alphabet? When is a letter silent? Into what classes are letters divided? What is a Vowel? a Consonant? a Mute? a Semi-vowel? What is a Diphthong? a Proper Diphthong? an Improper Diphthong? What is a Triphthong? How may the mutes and semi-vowels be distinguished? Name the

letters that belong to the different classes. Why is a Dental so called? What is a Word? a Syllable? a Polysyllable?

In forming the following words, what word and suffix are combined? What change, if any, takes place? What rule is applicable?

Dutiful, beauteous, tarrying, player, daily, caring, dying, dyeing, singeing, changeable, careful, duly, druggist, believing.

SECOND PART

ETYMOLOGY

Etymology treats of Words.

Words are considered in regard to their Classification, Inflection, and Derivation.

By the **Classification** of words is meant the arrangement of them into different classes, according to their signification and use.

By the **Inflection** of words is meant the change of form which they undergo.

By the **Derivation** of words is meant tracing them to their original form and meaning.

Give an illustration of each of these definitions.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS

The classes of words in English are nine, namely, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Articles, Verbs, Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections. These classes of words are sometimes called The Parts of Speech.

The **Parts of Speech** may be classed and defined as follows:

1. Name Words

Nouns.—A *Noun* is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *John, school, book.*

2. Representative Words

Pronouns.—A *Pronoun* is a word used instead of a noun; as, The man is happy because *he* is benevolent.

3. Action Words

Verbs.—A *Verb* is a word used to assert or affirm; as, John *strikes* the table, Mary *studies* her lesson.

4. Modifying Words

Adjectives.—An *Adjective* is a word used to modify a noun or pronoun; as, A *green* tree, A *wise* man, *Brave* soldiers, She is *studious*.

Articles.—An *Article* is the word *a, an,* or *the* placed before a noun to show whether the noun is used in a definite or in an indefinite sense.

Adverbs.—An *Adverb* is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, He writes *rapidly*, A *very* fast horse, He wrote *very* rapidly.

5. Relation Words

Prepositions.—A *Preposition* is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word; as, He writes *with* a pen, He lives *in* a tent, He spoke *to* them.

6. Connecting Words

Conjunctions.—A *Conjunction* is a word used to connect words, sentences, and parts of sentences; as, John *and* James study, John writes *and* James reads, He is *neither* strong in body *nor* sound in mind.

7. Independent Words

Interjections.—An *Interjection* is a word used in making sudden exclamations; as, *oh! ah! alas!*

Exercises.—Name the part of speech to which each of the following words belongs:

River, sea, see, men, committee, eat, look (2), armory, arm (2), arms, tiger, leopard, sergeant, we, who, my, mine (3), with, great, kind (2), crowd (2), large, and, or, neither, ah, centre, how, up, that, nobody, hill, hilly, mountainous, greatest, an, action, charge (2), giant (2), down, whether, wharf, music, musician, musical, musically, now, never, more.

In the following sentences, name the part of speech of each word:

The enemy is upon us. I did not see him. He lifted his hand. He will come when he is called. I have no friends who will help me. How can I help my friend? Who is he? What sort of a man is he? Have you heard the news?

In the following paragraph, name the part of speech of each word:

"But we pray
That all mankind may make one brotherhood,
And love and serve each other; that all wars
And feuds die out of nations, whether those
Whom the sun's hot light darkens, or ourselves
Whom he treats fairly, or the northern tribes
Whom ceaseless snows and starry winters blench,
Savage or civilized,—let every race,
Red, black, or white, olive, or tawny-skinned,
Settle in peace and swell the gathering hosts
Of the great Prince of Peace."

I. THE NOUN

A **Noun** is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *John, school, book.*

Letters and words used technically are to be considered nouns; as, "*C* is sounded hard before *a, o, u.*" "*lb* means pound." "*Me* is a pronoun." "+ is the sign of addition."

I. CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

Nouns are divided into two general classes, PROPER and COMMON.

A **Proper Noun** is a name given to only one of a class of objects; as, *John, London, Delaware.*

A proper noun should always begin with a capital letter.

A **Common Noun** is a name given to any one of a class of objects; as, *boy, city, river.*

Exercises.—Which of the following nouns are proper, and which common? Which should begin with a capital letter?

england, colony, holland, empire, america, queen, victoria, illinois, poet, milton, boy, girl, tree, city, philadelphia, baltimore, hudson, wednesday, tuesday, autumn, february, henry, mary, river.

Write each of these nouns in a sentence.

FURTHER CLASSIFICATION

Some common nouns are further classified as COLLECTIVE, ABSTRACT, VERBAL, and DIMINUTIVE.

A **Collective Noun** is the name of a collection of objects considered as one; as, *army, crowd.* A collective noun is also called a **Noun of Multitude.**

Name other examples of collective nouns.

An **Abstract Noun** is one which denotes the name of a quality apart from the substance to which it belongs; as, *sweetness, beauty.* Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives.

Name other examples, and state from what adjective derived.

A **Verbal Noun** is one derived from a verb; as, *reading* (also called a **Participial Noun**); *to read* (also called an **Infinitive Used as a Noun**).

Name other examples and state the verb from which each is derived.

A **Diminutive Noun** is one derived from another noun, and expressing some object of the same kind, but smaller; as, *stream, streamlet; leaf, leaflet; hill, hillock; duck, duckling; goose, gosling.*

Exercises.—To what kind or class does each of the following common nouns belong?

Islet, spelling, lambkin, hillock, acuteness, loyalty, flock, senate, jury, council, army, herd, class, committee, fighting, swearing, idleness, to play, to see, to swim.

Write a list of ten collective nouns; ten abstract nouns; ten verbal nouns; three diminutive nouns; and write each one in a sentence.

Combine two or three of these sentences so as to form a connected statement.

II. ATTRIBUTES OF NOUNS

Nouns have the attributes of GENDER, NUMBER, PERSON, and CASE.

I. GENDER

Gender is the distinction of nouns in regard to SEX.

Nouns have three genders, MASCULINE, FEMININE, and NEUTER.

The **Masculine Gender** denotes objects of THE MALE SEX; as, *boy, man.*

The **Feminine Gender** denotes objects of THE FEMALE SEX; as, *girl, woman.*

The **Neuter Gender** denotes objects WITHOUT SEX; as, *book, river.*

Write ten examples of nouns in each of the genders.

MODES OF DISTINGUISHING GENDER

There are three ways of distinguishing gender:

1. By the use of different words; as, *bachelor, maid; son, daughter.*

2. By difference of termination; as, *giant, giantess; editor, editress.*

3. By prefixing or affixing another word; as, *man-servant, maid-servant; land-lord, land-lady.*

1. By the Use of Different Words

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Bachelor	maid	Lord	lady
Beau	belle	Male	female
Boar	sow	Man	woman
Boy	girl	Master	miss
Brother	sister	Milter	spawner
Buck	doe	Mister	Mistress
Bull	cow	Mr.	Mrs.
Bullock	cow	Nephew	niece
Ox	cow	Papa	mamma
Colt	filly	Ram	ewe
Drake	duck	Singer	songstress
Earl	countess	Sir	madam
Father	mother	Sire (*the king*)	madam
Friar	nun	Sire (*a horse*)	dam
Monk	nun	Sloven	slattern
Gander	goose	Son	daughter
Hart	roe	Stag	hind
Horse	mare	Steer	heifer
Husband	wife	Swain	nymph
King	queen	Uncle	aunt
Lad	lass	Wizard	witch.

And many others.

2. By Difference of Termination

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Abbot	abbess	Moabite	Moabitess
Actor	actress	Monitor	monitress
Ambassador	ambassadress	Murderer	murderess
Arbiter	arbitress	Negro	negress
Author	authoress	Patron	patroness
Baron	baroness	Peer	peeress
Benefactor	benefactress	Poet	poetess
Canon	canoness	Priest	priestess
Caterer	cateress	Prince	princess
Chanter	chantress	Prior	prioress
Conductor	conductress	Prophet	prophetess
Count	countess	Proprietor	proprietress
Dauphin	dauphiness	Protector	protectress
Deacon	deaconess	Shepherd	shepherdess
Demon	demoness	Songster	songstress
Director	directress	Sorcerer	sorceress
Duke	duchess	Tailor	tailoress
Editor	editress	Tiger	tigress
Elector	electress	Traitor	traitress
Emperor	empress	Tutor	tutoress
Enchanter	enchantress	Tyrant	tyranness
Founder	foundress	Viscount	viscountess
Giant	giantess	Votary	votaress
God	goddess		
Governor	governess		
Heir	heiress	Administrator	administratrix
Host	hostess	Bridegroom	bride
Hunter	huntress	Czar	czarina
Idolater	idolatress	Don	donna
Inhabitor	inhabitress	Executor	executrix
Instructor	instructress	Heritor	heritrix
Jesuit	Jesuitess	Hero	heroine
Jew	Jewess	Landgrave	landgravine
Lion	lioness	Sultan	sultana
Marquis	marchioness	Testator	testatrix
Mayor	mayoress	Widower	widow

3. By Prefixing or Affixing Another Word

Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Masculine.*	*Feminine.*
Arch*duke*	arch*duchess*	Land*lord*	land*lady*
Cock-sparrow	*hen*-sparrow	*Male*-child	*female*-child
Gentle*man*	gentle*woman*	*Man*-servant	*maid*-servant
Grand*father*	grand*mother*	Pea*cock*	pea*hen*
He-goat	*she*-goat	School*master*	school*mistress*

GENERAL REMARKS ON GENDER

1. Some nouns denote objects which may be either male or female; as, *bird, parent.* These are said to be of the common gender.

2. Many masculines have no corresponding feminines; as, *baker, brewer,* etc. A few feminines have no corresponding masculines; as, *laundress, brunette, virago,* etc.

3. In some of the words which have both masculine and feminine terminations, the masculine is ordinarily used to denote both sexes, whenever the office or profession is the idea chiefly intended. When, however, it is the intention of the sentence to designate the sex of the individual spoken of, the change of termination is to be observed. Thus, "the *poets* of the age" would be correct when speaking of poets of both sexes; but the "best *poetess* of the age" would be used when speaking of female writers only.

4. In speaking of small animals, or of those whose sex is not known, or not regarded, they are often considered as without sex; thus, we say of a *cat* "it is treacherous," of an *infant* "it is beautiful," of a *deer* "it was killed."

5. A collective noun is neuter when it refers not to the objects separately, but to the collection as one whole. Thus: The *class* is large; it must be divided.

II. NUMBER.

Number is that attribute of nouns which indicates whether ONE or MORE THAN ONE is meant.

Nouns have two numbers; the SINGULAR and the PLURAL.

The **Singular Number** denotes ONE, the **Plural Number** denotes MORE THAN ONE.

MODES OF FORMING THE PLURAL

1. Plural in *s*

Nouns are usually made plural by adding *s* to the singular; as, *book, books.*

Exercise.—Name the plural of house, room, chair, book, bee, bird, dog, cat, pen, pencil, noun, poet, tree, flower, ship.

2. Plural in *es*

Nouns ending in *ch* soft, *s*, *sh*, *x*, and *z* are made plural by adding *es* to the singular; as, *church, churches; miss, misses; lash, lashes; box, boxes; topaz, topazes.*

Exercise.—Name the plural of dish, peach, larch, match, latch, dash, lash, kiss, mess, moss, loss, muss, mass, fuss, rush, hiss, wish, sash, fish, quiz, fox, miss, lynx, radish.

State the reason in each case.

Write sentences each containing one or more of these nouns.

Nouns ending in *o* differ as to the mode of forming the plural. Some form the plural by adding *es*. Among these are *calico, cargo, hero, motto, mulatto, negro, potato, tomato, tornado, volcano,* etc. Others form the plural by adding simply *s*. Among these are *armadillo, cameo, canto, duodecimo, folio, halo, junto, memento, octavo, piano, portico, proviso, quarto, salvo, sirocco, solo, trio, tyro, virtuoso, zero,* etc.

Exercise.—Name the plural of negro, no, Cato, echo, two, buffalo, bamboo, lasso, potato, trio, motto, halo.

Write the singular and plural forms of all these words in sentences.

3. Plural in *ves*

Most nouns ending in single *f*, or in *fe*, are made plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves;* as, *loaf, loaves; life, lives.*

The following nouns do not change *f* into *ves,* but form the plural according to the general rule, that is, by adding *s* to the singular: *Brief, chief, dwarf, fife, grief, gulf, hoof, handkerchief, kerchief, mischief, proof, reproof, roof, safe, scarf, strife, surf, turf.*

Nouns ending in double *f* follow the general rule; as, *muff, muffs.*

Exception.—*Staff,* a stick, has *staves* in the plural; *staff,* a body of officers, has *staffs.* The compounds of *staff* all have *staffs* in the plural; as, *flagstaffs, tipstaffs, distaffs,* etc.

Exercise.—Name the plural of wharf, half, cuff, leaf, beef, calf, thief, wife, roof, life.

4. Plural in *ies*

Nouns ending in *y* after a consonant are made plural by changing *y* into *ies;* as, *lady, ladies.*

Nouns ending in *y* after a vowel do not change *y* into *ies,* but form the plural by the general rule; as, *day, days.*

Exercise.—Name the plural of ray, toy, chimney, tray, artery, Monday, February, buoy, boy, attorney, valley, money, whisky, whiskey, fancy, fairy, sky, penny.

Write the singular and plural forms of all these words in sentences.

5. Plural in *'s*

Letters, figures, and other characters, used as nouns, are made plural by adding the *apostrophe* (') and *s;* as, Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's;* the + 's should be transposed; three 6's = two 9's.

Write the plural of E, if, 0, 3, but.

PLURAL OF PROPER NOUNS

Proper nouns, and other parts of speech used as nouns, are made plural in the same manner as common nouns of like endings; as, the *Pompeys* and *Ciceros* of the age; the *ins* and *outs* of office.

Write five examples of other parts of speech used as nouns in the plural number.

In words of this kind, ending in *y* after a consonant, the usage varies. Some simply add *s;* as, The *Marys* and *Marthas;* the *whys* and *wherefores.* Some change the *y* into *ies;* as, The two *Sicilies*, the *Alleghanies*, the five *twenties.*

NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Child	children	Mouse	mice
Foot	feet	Ox	oxen
Goose	geese	Tooth	teeth
Louse	lice	Woman	women
Man	men		

Write these words in sentences.

PLURALS WITH DIFFERENT SIGNIFICATIONS

Singular.	*Plural.* Regular.		*Plural.* Irregular.	
Brother	brothers (*of same family*)		brethren (*of same society*)	
Die	dies (*for coining*)		dice (*for gaming*)	
Genius	geniuses (*men of genius*)		genii (*spirits*)	
Index	indexes (*tables of reference*)		indices (*signs in algebra*)	
Cow	cows		kine	*the kind of animal.*
Pea	peas	*distinct objects*	pease	*the denomination.*
Penny	pennies		pence	

Exercises.—Write both these plural forms in sentences.

Name both plurals of the following, and tell the difference of the meaning: Fish, fruit, head, sail, shot.

Write both forms in sentences.

The compounds of *man* form the plural in the same manner as the simple word; as, *alderman, aldermen.*

Care should be taken not to confound compounds of the word *man* with words that accidentally end in those three letters. Thus, statesman is really compounded of two words, *states* and *man;* but Turcoman, Mussulman, German, are simple words, like *talisman, ottoman* (a kind of seat), and form the plural regularly, thus: *Turcomans, Mussulmans, Germans, talismans, ottomans.*

PLURAL OF COMPOUNDS

Compounds consisting of a noun and an adjective connected by a hyphen take the sign of the plural after the noun only; as, *court-martial, courts-martial.*

Compounds consisting of two or more words connected by a hyphen are sometimes composed of two nouns, one of which is used in the sense of an adjective, as, *man-trap,* in which the word *man* is really an adjective. Other compounds are composed of a noun and some combination of words having the force of an adjective, as *father-in-law,* in which the combination *in-law* has the force of an adjective. In all these compounds, the sign of the plural is added to that part of the compound which really constitutes the noun; as, *man-traps, fathers-in-law.*

Compounds of *full* form the plural regularly; as, *mouthful, mouthfuls; spoonful, spoonfuls; bucketful, bucketfuls.*

Exercise.—Name the plural of man-of-war, man-eater, drum-major, major-general, sergeant-at-arms, hen-coop, pin-cushion, son-in-law, cart-load, chess-man, dog-cart, mouse-trap, court-martial, pocket-book, boot-jack, piano-forte, Jack-a-lantern, man-servant, Knight Templar.

Write the singular and plural forms of each of these words in sentences.

PLURAL OF FOREIGN WORDS

Words adopted without change from foreign languages usually retain their original plurals. Among these are the following:

Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Alumna	alumnæ	Focus	foci
Alumnus	alumni	Formula	formulæ
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Fungus	fungi
Analysis	analyses	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Antithesis	antitheses	Nebula	nebulæ
Appendix	appendices	Oasis	oases
Arcanum	arcana	Parenthesis	parentheses
Axis	axes	Phenomenon	phenomena
Basis	bases	Radius	radii
Crisis	crises	Sarcophagus	sarcophagi
Criterion	criteria	Stimulus	stimuli
Datum	data	Stratum	strata
Desideratum	desiderata	Terminus	termini
Effluvium	effluvia	Thesis	theses
Ellipsis	ellipses	Vertex	vertices.
Erratum	errata		

Select words in the list given above that have the same termination, and give the plurals peculiar to each termination.

Some foreign words are so far domesticated as to have an English plural as well as a foreign one. Among these are the following:

Singular.	*Foreign Plural.*	*English Plural.*
Bandit	banditti	bandits
Cherub	cherubim	cherubs
Medium	media	mediums
Memorandum	memoranda	memorandums
Seraph	seraphim	seraphs
Stamen	stamina	stamens.

GENERAL REMARKS ON NUMBER

1. Some nouns are for the most part not used in the plural. Among these are the names of materials, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, and abstract nouns; as, *gold, goodness, idleness, wisdom, flour, milk, arithmetic, coffee, hope, cream, butter, grammar, flax, music, meat, water.*

Some of these words may be used in the plural. Which?

2. Some nouns are used only in the plural. Among these are *annals, antipodes, archives, assets, billiards, bitters, cattle, clothes, goods, nuptials, measles, oats, thanks, tidings, victuals, wages, ashes, dregs, eaves, head-quarters, hose;* also the names of things consisting of two parts, as, *bellows, scissors, tongs, pincers, tweezers, trousers,* etc.

3. Some nouns are alike in both numbers. Among these are *swine, deer, sheep, trout, salmon,* etc.; also several foreign words, as, *apparatus, series, species,* etc. The singular of such words may be generally distinguished by the use of the indefinite article *a* or *an;* as, *a series, a deer, a trout, an apparatus,* etc.

4. Many nouns are sometimes alike in both numbers, and at other times have a regular form for the plural. Among these are *head, brace, pair, couple, dozen, score,* etc. Thus we say, "He bought *twenty dozen* of them," and "He bought them in *dozens.*"

5. Some nouns are plural in form, but either singular or plural in meaning. Among them are *amends, means, news, riches,* etc.; also the names of certain sciences, as, *conics, optics, ethics, mathematics,* etc.

Means and *amends* are singular when they refer to only one object, plural when they refer to more than one. The singular *mean* is also used to signify strictly the middle between two extremes. *News* is rarely found with a plural signification. *Riches* has both a singular and a plural signification. *Alms* is strictly singular.

6. A collective noun is singular when it refers to the entire collection as one thing; as, "The army was defeated." A collective noun is plural when it refers to

the individuals of the collection; as, "The public are invited to be present."

What is the meaning of the following plural nouns when used only in the plural: Arms, colors, goods, letters, spectacles, vespers, morals.

Write all the nouns given, in sentences.

III. PERSON

Person is the distinction of nouns in their relation to the speaker.

Nouns have three persons, First, Second, and Third.

A noun is in the **First Person** when it denotes the speaker, as, I, *James*, gave him the ball.

A noun is in the **Second Person** when it denotes the person spoken to; as, *Frank*, you must go.

A noun is in the **Third Person** when it denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, *Columbus* discovered *America*.

Exercises.—In the following sentences, tell which words are nouns; state of each whether it is proper or common; and state the gender, number, and person of each:

I, John, saw the holy city, new Jerusalem. Rouse, ye Romans, rouse, ye slaves. I heard a voice, saying unto me, "Arise, Peter."

IV. CASE

Case distinguishes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words in the same sentence.

Nouns have three cases, Nominative, Possessive, and Objective.

The relation indicated by the case of a noun includes three ideas—*subject*, *object*, and *ownership*. A noun may

be to a verb in the relation of its *subject*, or that of which the assertion is made, and then it is in the Nominative Case; or it may have to some other noun the relation of *ownership* or *possession*, and then it is in the Possessive Case; or it may be to a verb or a preposition in the relation of its *object*, or that on which some action or relation terminates, and then it is in the Objective Case.

The **Nominative Case** is that in which a noun is THE SUBJECT OF A VERB; as, The *girl* reads.

The **Possessive Case** is that which DENOTES OWNERSHIP OR POSSESSION; as, *Mary's* book.

The **Objective Case** is that in which a noun is THE OBJECT OF SOME VERB OR PREPOSITION; as, Mary wrote a *letter*. William went into the *street*.

How to Find the Nominative.—The subject of the verb may be found by putting "who" or "what" before the verb and asking the question. Example: "A man bought a hat." Who bought? Answer, "Man." Therefore, "man" is the subject of the verb "bought," and is in the nominative case.

How to Find the Objective.—The object of a verb or of a preposition may be found by putting "whom" or "what" after the verb or the preposition and asking the question. Examples: "William hurt his sister." Hurt whom? Answer, "Sister." Therefore, "sister" is the object of the verb "hurt." "William went into the street." Into what? Answer, "Street." Therefore, "street" is the object of the preposition "into."

Exercises.—Name the subject of each verb in the following sentences; also the object of each verb and preposition:

A lesson in geography was assigned to the whole division.
Idleness in youth brings misery in old age.
Lying leads to other bad habits.
Charles caught a fish in the lake.

Exercise strengthens the body.
The peddler sold oranges, lemons, and bananas.
A wise son maketh a glad father.
Mary read an interesting book.
The vessel was loaded with spices.
We began our journey.
The teacher of the second division assigned to the first section a lesson in geography.

FORMATION OF THE POSSESSIVE

The **Possessive Singular** is formed from the nominative singular by adding an *apostrophe* and *s* (*'s*).

The **Possessive Plural** is formed from the nominative plural by adding an *apostrophe* only, when the plural ends in *s;* and by adding both the *apostrophe* and *s* when the plural does not end in *s*.

GENERAL REMARKS ON THE POSSESSIVE

1. There was at one time a notion, which, indeed, to some extent still obtains, that when the nominative ends in *s* the possessive is formed by adding the apostrophe only. This is true in the plural, but not in the singular. In the possessive singular, both the apostrophe and *s* are added, though the nominative should end in *s*. The best writers at the present day rarely omit this additional *s*. Thus, Adams's speeches, Dickens's works, James's books. Some exceptions are: in Jesus' name; for conscience' sake.

2. When the nominative ends in a sound with which the apostrophic *s* cannot combine, the word is pronounced as if *es* were added. Thus, *church's* is pronounced exactly like *churches*. In writing these forms, care should be taken not to be misled by the sound.

3. In like manner, in nouns ending in *y* after a consonant, care should be taken not to confound the possessive singular and the nominative plural, which are pronounced

alike, though written differently; as, lad*y*, possessive singular lad*y's*, nominative plural lad*ies*.

4. The import of the possessive may generally be expressed by the preposition *of;* thus, "*man's* wisdom" means "the wisdom *of man*." These two forms of expression, however, do not always mean the same. Thus, "the king's picture" may mean a picture *belonging* to the king; but "a picture of the king" means a *portrait* of him.

5. The apostrophe and *s* (*'s*) do not always indicate the possessive case. They are sometimes employed to form the plural of mere letters or characters used as nouns; as, four 3*'s*, ten 6*'s;* also to form the singular of verbs of a similar character; as, "He *pro's* and *con's*, and weighs the matter o'er."

6. The sign of the possessive case is placed at the end of a compound noun; as, My *father-in-law's* house.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

The arrangement of the several cases of nouns and pronouns in the singular and plural number is called declension.

Singular.			*Plural.*		
Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
Church	church's	church	churches	churches'	churches
Friend	friend's	friend	friends	friends'	friends
Jones	Jones's	Jones	Joneses	Joneses'	Joneses.
Lady	lady's	lady	ladies	ladies'	ladies
Man	man's	man	men	men's	men

Exercises in Declension.—Decline *fox, farmer, Benjamin, James, city, attorney, lass, miss.*

Write the possessive case, singular, of *Agnes, Robert Morris, Roger Williams, Martin Van Buren, John Quincy Adams, maid-of-all-work.*

Write the possessive case, singular and plural, of *baby, colony, landlady, dray, calf, mulatto, ox, ox-cart, mouse.*

Write the singular and plural forms of each of these words in sentences.

Give the use of the *apostrophe* and *s* in the following:

Lazarus's son; The 9's were cast out; There are two k's in kick; James's lesson is hard.

Name all the nouns and articles in the following sentences. Name the gender, number, person, and case of each noun. Name each verb and give its subject:

Straws show the way the wind blows.
They travelled along the road.
The way was rough, and the wind was cold.
Westward the march of empire takes its way.
A man's manners often make his fortune.
Vice stings us in our pleasures; virtue consoles us in our pains.
In a great emergency, Grace Darling helped her father to row a boat during a dreadful storm, and by this means, in the hands of Providence, she prevented sorrow in many mothers' hearts.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

Of what does etymology treat? What is meant by the inflection of words? How many classes of words are there? Name the different parts of speech.

What is an article? Classify them. When is *an* written *a?* Which of the articles is written before the plural number? Justify the use of *an* before *onion*, and *a* before *union.*

What is a noun? What is a proper noun? How written? What is a common noun? Define collective noun. Abstract noun. What are the attributes of a noun? What conditions give rise to these attributes?

Define gender. How do we distinguish the gender of nouns? When is a noun said to be of the common gender?

What is number? What is the general rule for forming the plural? What nouns form the plural in *es, ves, ies, 's?* What exceptions to these rules? Name some irregular plurals. Name some nouns that have two plurals. Of what are compound nouns composed? How do you write their plurals? What is person? Define each person.

What is case? How many cases? Define each. How is the possessive singular formed? The possessive plural? How do you form the possessive case of compound nouns? Do the apostrophe and *s* ever indicate the plural?

II. THE ADJECTIVE

An **Adjective** is a word used to modify a noun or a pronoun; as, A *green* tree, A *wise* man, *Brave* soldiers.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are divided into two general classes, Descriptive Adjectives and Limiting Adjectives.

Descriptive Adjectives

A **Descriptive Adjective** is one that denotes some quality of an object; as, *White* rose, *Sweet* cake, *Rough* boards, *American* wheat.

Descriptive adjectives include Proper Adjectives and Common Adjectives.

A **Proper Adjective** is one derived from a proper noun; as, *American* people, *British* troops.

A **Common Adjective** is one which denotes the ordinary qualities of objects; as, *Sour* milk, *Brown* hat, *Long* stick.

Limiting Adjectives

A **Limiting Adjective** is one which limits a noun or pronoun, but does not denote any quality; as, *that* boy, *each* apple, *four* men.

The limiting adjectives include Numeral Adjectives and Pronominal Adjectives.

A **Numeral Adjective** expresses number; as, *One* house, *Seven* men, *Fifth* girl, *Eighth* apple.

A **Pronominal Adjective** is one which may also be used as a pronoun; as, *Each* boy, *That* man, *Some* books.

The pronominal adjectives include *each, every, either, neither, this, that, these, those, all, any, other, some, such,* etc.

The pronominal adjectives are subdivided into three kinds or classes: *Distributives*, *Demonstratives*, and *Indefinites*.

I. Distributives

The **Distributives** are *each, every, either,* and *neither.* They are called distributives because they refer separately and singly to each person or thing of a number of things.

Each is used in speaking of two or more; as, "Each boy must go home." This sentence is correct whether it is addressed to two persons or to more than two.

Every is used only when speaking of more than two; as, "Every boy must go home." This sentence is not correct if spoken to two boys.

Each and *every* mean all that make up the number, although taken separately.

Either means one or the other, but not both. It is used when speaking of but two persons or things.

Neither means not either, and is, therefore, used when speaking of but two persons or things.

II. Demonstratives

The **Demonstratives** are *this* and *that, these* and *those.*

The demonstratives are so called because they point out in a definite manner the persons or things to which they relate; as, *This* boy recited well, but *that* boy did not. *These* men are officers, but *those* men are privates.

This and *these* are applied to near objects; *that* and *those* are applied to more distant objects.

This and *that* are applied to but one object or person; *these* and *those* to more than one object or person.

III. Indefinites

The **Indefinites** are *any, all, another, both, few, many, other, several, some,* and *such.*

The indefinites are so called because they point out the persons or things in an indefinite or inexact manner; as, "Any boy may go home."

Exercises.—Write five common adjectives.

Write five proper adjectives.

Write five numeral adjectives.

Write five pronominal adjectives.

Write an adjective before each of the following nouns:

Farmer, cloud, sheep, school, scholar, rider, horse, Turks.

Use five common adjectives in sentences. Use five pronominal adjectives in sentences.

Predicate Adjectives

An adjective that completes the predicate and modifies the subject is a **Predicate Adjective**; as, The apple is *sweet.* The boy is *good.* The juice tastes *sour.* In these sentences *sweet* completes the predicate *is; good* completes the predicate *is; sour* completes the predicate *tastes.*

Verbal Adjectives

Infinitives and participles are often used as adjectives, and are then called infinitives used as adjectives, participles used as adjectives, or verbal adjectives; as, Desire *to succeed* is laudable. *Standing* water becomes impure.

NOTES

1. Nouns become adjectives when they are used to express some quality of another noun; as, *gold* ring, *sea* water, *Alaska* gold, a *cherry* box, a *farewell* address.

2. Adjectives are sometimes used as nouns; as, our *superiors*, his *betters*, by *fifties*, for *twenty's* sake.

3. Adjectives preceded by a definite article are often used as nouns; as, "The *little* that was known of him." When the expression refers to persons, the adjective is always considered plural; as, "*the good*," meaning good men.

II. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives are varied by COMPARISON.

The arrangement of an adjective in its different degrees is called its Comparison.

The Degrees of Comparison are three: POSITIVE, COMPARATIVE, and SUPERLATIVE.

The **Positive Degree** expresses the quality; as, *small*, *wise*, a *young* horse, a *green* field.

The **Comparative Degree** expresses the quality in a higher or lower degree; as, *smaller*, *wiser*, a *softer* silk, a *fiercer* animal, a *better* result.

The **Superlative Degree** expresses the quality in the highest or lowest degree; as, *smallest*, *wisest*, the *largest* fish, the *sweetest* music, the *best* record, the *most honored* name.

Methods of Comparison

There are three ways of comparing adjectives. Two ways are usually spoken of as the Regular Comparisons, and the third as the Irregular Comparison.

Regular Comparisons

(1) Adjectives of one syllable usually form the Comparative by adding *er* to the Positive, and the Superlative by adding *est* to the Positive; as *great, greater, greatest.*

Adjectives of two syllables ending in *ow, y,* or *e* are usually compared by adding *er* and *est;* as, *narrow, narrower, narrowest; happy, happier, happiest; able, abler, ablest.*

(2) Adjectives of more than one syllable usually form the Comparative by prefixing *more* or *less* to the Positive, and the Superlative by prefixing *most* or *least* to the Positive; as, *numerous, more* or *less* numerous, *most* or *least* numerous.

More and *most, less* and *least,* when connected with adjectives, may be considered as adverbs modifying the adjective; or the adverb and the adjective may be taken together as the comparative or superlative form of the adjective.

Some adjectives form the superlative by adding *most* to the end of the word; as, upper, upper*most.*

Irregular Comparison

(3) Some adjectives are compared irregularly; as,

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
Far	farther further	farthest furthest
Good	better	best
Little	less	least
Much, many	more	most

Exercises.—Write five examples of adjectives (regular comparison) used in the positive degree. Write these adjectives in the comparative and in the superlative degrees. Write five sentences, each containing one or more of these adjectives.

Write five sentences, each containing an adjective of irregular comparison.

Superlatives with Different Meanings

Fore	former	foremost	(*in place*)	first	}
Late	later	latest	(*in time*)	last	} *in order.*
Near	nearer	nearest	(*in place*)	next	}

Prior, superior, ulterior, exterior, inferior, etc., involve the idea of comparison, like the words *previous, preferable,* and many others, but they are not considered as comparatives and are not followed by *than,* as English comparatives usually are.

The termination *ish* makes what is sometimes called a sub-positive; as, *bluish, blackish.*

Some of the ideas expressed by adjectives are fixed and absolute. That is, they refer to things not capable of increase or diminution. Among these may be reckoned those which denote some definite number, shape, or position; as, *two, three, second, third, circular, triangular, perpendicular;* also those which express the substance of which anything is made, as, *golden, flaxen;* also many such words as *whole, universal, supreme.* All such adjectives are incapable of being compared.

Exercises.—Compare *unlucky, lucky, benevolent, shady, sad, active, abusive, noisy, lazy, gay, fine, irregular, harmonious, juicy, ill-natured, thoughtless, beautiful, large, red, square, eligible, dead, equal, right.*

Write the superlative of *hind, inner, outer, top.*

Write five of the pronominal adjectives in sentences. What word does the adjective modify in each of the sentences you have written?

Name the nouns, articles, and adjectives in the following sentences. Name the gender, number, person, and case of each of the nouns. What does each of the adjectives and articles modify? Name the degree of the adjectives used. Name the verb and its subject:

The wicked often put off repentance to the eleventh hour.

The exterior of the stone wall was perpendicular. It had a thickness of two feet at the top, and was still thicker at the bottom.

We should not consider our inferiors contemptible, for though they may be our inferiors in rank, they are perhaps our superiors in virtue.

Rain water is less pleasant to the taste than river or spring water. Though the former may contain less foreign matter, the latter is more acceptable to the thirsty.

Two experts examined that boy. His ability was wonderful.

Twinkling stars dotted the evening sky.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

What is an adjective? What is the office of the adjective? Into what two general classes divided? When called descriptive? When called definitive or limiting? What is a proper adjective? Name three. What is a common adjective? When do adjectives become nouns? When do nouns become adjectives? What is meant by a numeral adjective? Name five. What is a pronominal adjective? Name five. What is a predicate adjective? What is a verbal adjective? Give examples.

How are adjectives varied? Name the degrees of comparison. What does each express? Illustrate. How are the degrees formed? When do we prefix words to form

these degrees? What exception? What is meant by an irregular comparison? Illustrate. Give another method of forming the superlative. Justify the use of *nearest* and *next* as superlatives. Is *superior* a comparative? Why? Compare *dead, square, right.* Why? What do adjectives modify?

III. THE ARTICLE

An **Article** is the word *a, an,* or *the* placed before a noun to show whether the noun is used in a definite or in an indefinite sense.

NOTE.—The articles have the nature of adjectives in that they limit or qualify the meaning of the nouns which they modify. Therefore some grammarians call them *limiting* or *definitive* adjectives.

The Articles are *an* and *the.*

An is the INDEFINITE Article, *the* is the DEFINITE Article.

The Article *an* is written before a vowel sound; as, *an* eagle, *an* old man.

The Article *an* is contracted into *a* before a consonant sound; as, *a* man, *a* bird.

O and *u* sometimes have a consonant sound at the beginning of a word; as, *one, unit.*

H before a vowel is sometimes silent; as, *hour, honor.*

An or *a* means one, and is used only before the singular number; as, *a* man, *an* apple.

The is used before both numbers; as, *the* man, *the* men.

Exercises.—Name the appropriate indefinite article to be used before each of the following words:

Ewe, yew, eye, ear, watch, one-eyed man, European, Indian, umbrella, use, end, day, opening, engineer, horse,

honest, hiatus, human, humble, onion, orchard, usury, unit, eagle.

Write each of these words in a sentence.

Write the following sentences and fill the blanks with the proper article:

—— old man and —— boy walked on —— highway.
—— eagle is —— noble bird.
—— mills of —— gods grind slowly.
—— water rushed like —— torrent down —— hillsides.
—— honest man is —— noblest work of God.
Borneo is —— island.
Philadelphia is —— city.
—— man is known by —— company he keeps.

What does each of the articles used in the preceding sentences modify?

IV. THE PRONOUN

A **Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun; as, "The man is happy because *he* is benevolent."

Pronouns are divided into four classes: PERSONAL, RELATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, and ADJECTIVE.

The leading or prominent idea gives name to each class of pronouns. The leading idea in the Personal Pronoun is the distinction of person; in the Relative Pronoun it is the relation to an antecedent; in the Interrogative it is the question; in the Adjective Pronoun it is the relation to some noun omitted, in the manner of an adjective.

Pronouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

A pronoun must agree with the noun for which it stands in gender, number, and person.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The **Personal Pronouns** are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it;* and their plurals, *we*, *you*, *they*.

Personal pronouns are so called because they denote the person by themselves, without reference to any other word.

Declension of the Personal Pronouns

First Person—Masc. or Fem.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	*I*	Nom.	*we*
Poss.	*my*, or *mine*	Poss.	*our*, or *ours*
Obj.	*me*	Obj.	*us*.

Second Person—Masc. or Fem.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	*thou*	Nom.	*you*
Poss.	*thy*, or *thine*	Poss.	*your*, or *yours*
Obj.	*thee*	Obj.	*you*.

Third Person—Masculine.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	*he*	Nom.	*they*
Poss.	*his*	Poss.	*their*, or *theirs*
Obj.	*him*	Obj.	*them*.

Third Person—Feminine.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	*she*	Nom.	*they*
Poss.	*her*, or *hers*	Poss.	*their*, or *theirs*
Obj.	*her*	Obj.	*them*.

Third Person—Neuter.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
Nom.	*it*	Nom.	*they*
Poss.	*its*	Poss.	*their*, or *theirs*
Obj.	*it*	Obj.	*them*.

Remarks on Personal Pronouns

1. In the first person, the plural *we* is often used for the singular *I*, by editors, reviewers, governors, etc.

2. In the second person, the plural is generally used for the singular. Thus, *you* is used for *thou*, *your* or *yours* for *thy* or *thine*, and *you* for *thee*. In prayers to God, however, and on other solemn occasions, we use the singular form, *thou*, *thy* or *thine*, *thee*.

3. Where a plural pronoun is thus used, while only one person is meant, the verb as well as the pronoun must be plural. Thus: *we are*, not *we is; you were*, not *you was*.

4. The second person plural had originally *ye* in the nominative and *you* in the objective. The form *ye*, however, has now become obsolete in prose, but is sometimes used in poetry.

5. The Possessives should never be written with an apostrophe, *her's, it's, our's, your's, their's*, but always thus: *hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*.

6. The adjective *own* is frequently found connected with the possessive case of the personal pronoun, in order to make the possessive emphatic; thus, "It is your *own* fault."

7. The pronoun *it* is sometimes used indefinitely or without reference to any particular word; as, *it* rains, *it* snows, *it* is one o'clock, *it* is I, *it* is a plain statement.

Compound Personal Pronouns

The Compound Personal Pronouns are *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, and *itself*, with their plurals, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*.

In the compound personal pronouns the nominative and objective cases are alike, and the possessive is wanting.

Exercises.—Write twelve sentences, each containing one or more of the personal and compound personal pronouns.

In the following sentences name the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and articles. Name the class, properties, and use of each. State what each article and each adjective modifies. To what noun does each pronoun refer? In what case is each pronoun? Name the verbs in each sentence, and name the subject of each:

William lost his brother's new book.

When John was at school he wrote a letter to his father.

The wind, when it blows upon my body, making it shiver, tells me that I am mortal, though some persons would only complain that they were obliged to bear its buffetings.

The Queen of Sheba retired from Solomon's presence convinced that his wisdom was greater than any account that had been given to her of it would have led her to infer.

We, the people, watch with jealousy those who are our rulers, that they may not infringe upon our rights, and that the liberties which we possess may be secured to our children when they succeed us.



II. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

The **Relative Pronouns** are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

The relative pronouns are so called because they relate to some word going before, called the antecedent; as, "The *boy who* wishes to be learned must be studious."

Who is used in speaking of persons; as, "The gentleman *who* called was denied admission," "The lady *who* called was my mother."

Which is used in speaking of inferior animals, or of things without life; as, "The horse *which* was bought

by my uncle is a beautiful animal," "The book *which* was given to me is very valuable."

Which is often used as a pronominal adjective; as, "*Which* things are an allegory."

What, as a relative, takes the place of *which* whenever the antecedent is omitted, and is equivalent to *the thing which* or *the things which*, hence, may be either singular or plural.

"This is the thing *which* I wanted." If we omit the antecedent, *which* must be changed to *what*. "This is *what* I wanted."

What always refers to things without life, and, therefore, is always neuter. It may be either singular or plural. "*What* [the thing which] appears to be at fault is only a virtue in disguise." "*What* [the things which] appear to be faults are only virtues in disguise."

What is often used as a pronominal adjective; as, "We lost *what* books we had."

That, as a relative, takes the place of either *who* or *which*.

That is used in speaking either of persons or of things, and is used in both numbers; as, "The best *boy* that lives," "The *book* that was lost," "The best *boys* that live," "The *books* that were lost."

The word *that* is used in four senses: 1. Sometimes it has the meaning of *who* or *which;* as, "The best boy *that* lives"; and then it is a relative pronoun. 2. Sometimes it points out a noun; as, "*That* boy"; and then it is a pronominal adjective. 3. Sometimes it shows the dependence of one verb upon another; as, "He wished *that* he had done it"; and then it is a conjunction. 4. It may be used instead of a noun; as, "*That* is mine"; in which case it is an adjective pronoun.

What and *that* are indeclinable.

Who and *which* are alike in both numbers, and are thus declined:

Sing. and Plur.		*Sing. and Plur.*	
Nom.	*who*	Nom.	*which*
Poss.	*whose*	Poss.	*whose*
Obj.	*whom*	Obj.	*which*

A relative pronoun is always of the same gender, number, and person as its antecedent.

The relative pronoun acts as a connective and introduces into the body of a sentence an additional statement. This statement is called a clause, and in its use or office it is either an adjective or a noun; as, "The money *which was lost* has been found" (adjective clause). "He lost *what I gave him*" (noun clause).

Exercises.—Name the relative pronoun in each of the following sentences. Name the clause, and state its use:

Do you know who has arrived?
I believe that he will answer my letter.
The earth, on which we live, is a planet.
I forgot the message which you gave me.
The ship which brought the goods was called "Juno."
Who that loves his country would ever consent to act so?

> Who ask and reason thus, can scarce conceive
> God gives enough when He has more to give.

Write five sentences, each containing one or more of the relative pronouns.

Compound Relative Pronouns

The **Compound Relative Pronouns** are *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

The compound relative pronouns are formed by adding *ever* and *soever* to the relatives *who*, *which*, and *what*.

These compounds are sometimes separated by an intervening noun; as, "Into *whose* house *soever* ye enter."

Whosoever is regularly declined like *who;* thus,

Sing. and Plur.

Nom.	*whosoever*
Poss.	*whosesoever*
Obj.	*whomsoever.*

The other compound relatives are indeclinable.

Whichever, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever* are also used as adjectives; as, "*Whichever* side you choose, you are sure to win."

Compound relatives have a double case relation; as, "Select *whichever* you desire." In this sentence *whichever* is objective case, object of the verb "select," and also objective case, object of the verb "desire."

Exercise.—Write six sentences, each containing one or more of the compound relatives.

III. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

In *asking* questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called **Interrogative Pronouns;** as, *Who* discovered America? *Which* country won the battle? *What* building was destroyed?

As interrogatives, *who*, *which*, and *what* have no *antecedent*, but relate to a word, *subsequent*, contained in the answer. Thus, "*Who* did it? *John.*"

Which and *what*, when used as interrogatives, or when joined with *ever* and *soever*, apply to *persons* as well as *things;* as, *Which* of them did it? John. *What* is he? A lawyer.

The relative pronoun used in answering a question must be the same as the one used in asking it; thus, *Who*

wrote the book? I do not know *who* wrote it. *Which* of the gentlemen was it? I do not know *which* of them it was. *What* is he? I do not know *what* he is.

In asking about persons, *who* inquires for the *name;* as, "*Who* wrote the book? Mr. Webster"; *which* asks for the particular *individual,* where there are several persons of the same name; as, "*Which* of the Websters wrote it? Noah Webster"; *what* asks for the person's *character* or *occupation;* as, "*What* was Mr. Webster? A lexicographer."

Exercises.—Write six sentences, each containing one or more of the interrogatives.

In the following sentences, name all the nouns, pronouns, articles, and adjectives. Name the class, properties, and use of each. Give a reason for your answer in each case. What does each article and adjective modify? To what word does each pronoun relate? Name each verb and its subject:

John, who was at school, wrote a letter to his father.

What happened to you and your sister on your way to school?

By what slow degrees the little acorn becomes the mighty oak.

In the haste and confusion, I could not see by whom he was struck.

Whatever skill I have in composition is due to the manner in which I was trained.

He who knows what is good and chooses it, who knows what is bad and avoids it, is learned and temperate.

In this country in which we live every one that is a citizen can enjoy what in other countries is enjoyed by only a favored few. The President whom we have just chosen to rule over us is a living example of what the poorest man may achieve. Whoever has the ability to rise is in no way checked by a government which affords equal protection to all.

IV. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

An **Adjective Pronoun** is a pronoun which may also be used as an adjective to limit or modify a noun. As a pronoun it still retains the nature of an adjective, but has been used to stand for the noun omitted; as, "I gave him *that*." In this sentence *that* is an adjective pronoun. In the sentence "I gave him *that* book" *that* is a pronominal adjective.

"*That* discovery started prosperity"; "*Each* prisoner was paroled"; "*Another* shot tore the sail." In these sentences *that*, *each*, and *another* are pronominal adjectives. If the nouns are omitted, they become adjective pronouns; as, "*That* started prosperity"; "*Each* was paroled"; "*Another* tore the sail." When the noun which they modify is expressed, these words are pronominal adjectives. If the noun is not expressed, they are adjective pronouns.

The Adjective Pronouns are *all*, *another*, *any*, *both*, *each*, *either*, *few*, *many*, *neither*, *none*, *one*, *other*, *several*, *some*, *such*, *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.

They are divided into Distributives, Demonstratives, and Indefinites.

The **Distributives** are so called because they refer separately and singly to each person or thing of a number of things. The distributives are all in the singular number.

The distributives are *each*, *either*, and *neither*. (For the use of these refer to p. 42.)

The **Demonstratives** are so called because they point out in a definite manner the objects for which they stand.

The demonstratives are, *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.

This and *these* are applied to near objects; *that* and *those* to more distant objects. *This* and *that* are singular; *these* and *those* are plural. In contrasts, *that* refers to the first mentioned; *this* to the last; as, "Wealth and

poverty are both temptations; *that* (wealth) tends to excite pride, *this* (poverty), discontent."

The **Indefinites** are so called because they point out in an indefinite manner the objects for which they stand.

The indefinites are *all, another, any, both, few, many, none, one, other, several, some,* and *such.*

Exercises.—Write five sentences, each containing an adjective pronoun.

Rewrite the same sentences, changing each adjective pronoun to a pronominal adjective.

In the following sentences name the pronominal adjectives and the adjective pronouns:

Every citizen should honor this country.
This class will read to-day, the other, to-morrow.
Several were hurt when that building fell.
The account in every paper was the same.

In the following, select and classify with reasons every noun and every pronoun, also name the pronominal adjectives and tell what they modify:

That class of society in which only those who are wealthy are members, and in which each individual possesses no other merit, may be respected, but it has not the highest claims to respectability. All wise and good men, of any class, or of whatever rank, or of either of the two grades which the world has made,—the rich and the poor,—are worthy of respect. Such men receive the respect of all.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

What is a pronoun? Why so called? Into what classes divided? Why so called? What attributes does each of these classes have? Name the personal pronouns. Give the gender, number, person, and case of *my, thee, you, us, he, her, them,* and *it.* When is a plural pronoun used for a singular noun? What are compound personal pronouns? Name them. Name the relative pronouns.

When is *who* used? *which? what? that?* Name the compound relatives. Why so called? Name the interrogative pronouns. As an interrogative, what does *who* ask for? *which? what?* Name the subdivisions of the adjective pronouns. Why so called? Name the pronouns belonging to each subdivision.

V. THE VERB

A **Verb** is a word used to assert or affirm; as, "John *strikes* the table." "Mary *studies* her lesson."

What words in the following sentences are subjects?

The dog runs. The child sleeps. The horse was driven by a boy.

What words assert or affirm something of the subjects?

I. ATTRIBUTES OF VERBS

Verbs have the attributes of VOICE, MOOD, TENSE, NUMBER, and PERSON.

I. VOICE

Voice is that attribute of a transitive verb which denotes whether the subject of the verb *acts*, or *is acted upon*.

Transitive Verbs have two voices, the Active and the Passive. Intransitive Verbs do not have voice.

The **Active Voice** is that form of a transitive verb which denotes that the subject acts, or does the thing mentioned; as, "John *strikes* the table." "The teacher *explained* the lesson." "We *expect* a pleasant day."

The **Passive Voice** is that form of a transitive verb which denotes that the subject is acted upon; as, "The

table *is struck* by John." "The lesson *was explained* by the teacher." "A pleasant day *is expected* by us."

Formation of the Passive Voice.—The passive voice of a verb is formed by putting some form of the verb *be* before the *past participle* of the verb.

When the verb is changed from active to passive voice, other changes occur in the sentence than that in the verb itself; the subject of the active verb usually becomes the object of a preposition in the passive; the object of the active verb usually becomes the subject of the passive verb.

Exercises.—In what voice is the verb in each of these sentences?

We have studied our lessons.
The sergeant drilled the soldiers.
Poverty and distress follow a civil war.
The soldiers were drilled by the sergeant.
Good nature beautifies all objects.
Washington defeated the British.
The bill was adopted by the Senate.
The temple of Solomon was destroyed by the Roman soldiers.
The man on the lookout discovered land.
The book was torn by Mary.
The rewards which your uncle promised you will be given to you by your mother.

Change the voice of the verb in each of the preceding examples, and write the sentence with the verb so changed. Tell what changes you have made in the sentences.

II. MODE

Mode, or **mood,** is that attribute of the verb which denotes the manner or way in which the assertion is expressed.

Verbs have four Modes: the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Potential, and the Imperative.

It is the office of the verb to assert or affirm something. If this assertion or affirmation is limited to some subject or nominative, the verb is said to be *finite*. The assertion may be connected with the subject in four different ways, giving rise to the four finite modes: 1. The assertion may be expressed directly and without limitation, and then it is in the Indicative Mode; as, "The boy sleeps." 2. It may be expressed as a supposition, and then it is in the Subjunctive Mode; as, "If I *were* you, I would not go." 3. It may be expressed as a possibility, and then it is in the Potential Mode; as, "The boy may go." 4. It may be expressed as a command, and then it is in the Imperative Mode; as, "Come, boy." Sometimes the assertion is not limited to any particular subject, and then it is said to be an Infinitive, that is, *unlimited;* as, "To sleep."

The **Indicative Mode** is that form of the verb in which the assertion is expressed directly and without limitation; as, He *writes*, Horses *run*, The dog *barks*.

The indicative mode is also used in asking direct questions; as, Does the sun shine? Does my mother love me? This is sometimes called the Interrogative form.

The **Subjunctive Mode** is that form of the verb in which the assertion is expressed as a supposition, a wish, or a future contingency; as, If it *rain* this afternoon, you must not go. I *would* I *were* a boy again. Though he *fall*, he shall not be utterly cast down.

How does the subjunctive form of the verb differ from the indicative form?

The subjunctive mode is usually preceded by a conjunction, such as *if, though, although, unless, except, whether, lest.*

Sometimes, in the Past Tense, by transposing the words, and placing the verb or part of it before the subject, the verb becomes subjunctive without the use of a preceding conjunction. Thus: "*Were* I sure of the fact, I would consent."

The subjunctive mode is always accompanied by another verb in some other mode. Thus: "If he study diligently, he will improve."

The **Potential Mode** is that form of the verb which expresses possibility, liberty, power, willingness, or obligation; as, he *can write;* he *may write;* he *must write;* you *could write;* I *should go;* she *would go.*

The potential mode is also used in asking questions; as, *May* I *write? Must* I *write?*

The **Imperative Mode** is that form of the verb which is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit; as, *Write* the copy according to the directions; Father, *forgive* us; *Go,* if you desire it; *Come,* and *listen* to the music.

Exercises.—Name the voice and mode of each of the verbs in the following sentences and give your reasons:

The prisoner reached as far as his chain would allow.
Let me go, that I may see my father before he dies.
The moon is hidden by thick clouds.
Cultivate peace with all men.
Secrets confided to you should not be revealed.
If there be anything improper in my language, I will be much pleased if you will correct it.

III. TENSE

Tense is that attribute of a verb by which it expresses distinctions of TIME.

There are six Tenses: the Present, the Past, the Future, the Present-Perfect, the Past-Perfect, and the Future-Perfect.

The Present, Past, and Future are called Primary Tenses; the Present-Perfect, Past-Perfect, and Future-Perfect are called Secondary Tenses.

The **Present Tense** is that form of the verb which denotes simply present time; as, I *write;* The grass *grows.*

The present tense often expresses what is habitual, universal, or permanent; as, "The sun gives light by day, the moon by night"; "Charity thinketh no evil."

When preceded by certain conjunctions, such as *when, after, as soon as,* the present tense sometimes conveys the idea of that which is yet future; as, "He will go as soon as he *is* ready."

The **Past Tense** is that form of the verb which denotes simply past time; as, I *wrote;* He *arrived* yesterday.

This tense was formerly called the Imperfect Tense.

The **Future Tense** is that form of the verb which denotes simply future time; as, I *shall write;* I *will go* home.

The **Present-Perfect Tense** is that form of the verb which denotes what is past and finished, but which is connected also with the present time; as, I *have written* a letter this week.

The present-perfect tense expresses what continues to the present time in its consequences, although we know that the period of the action was completed long ago; as, "Cicero has written orations." We cannot in like manner say, "Cicero has written poems." His poems are lost, his orations still exist. Cicero, *the poet,* perished long since, but Cicero, *the orator,* is still extant, and may be conceived as existing and acting in a period extending down to the present moment. For the same reason,

we cannot say, "The Druids have claimed great powers," for they were long since extinct, and they have left no writing or other instrument in which such claim can be conceived as now set forth. We may, however, say, "Mahomet has claimed great powers," for the claim still exists in the Koran. An author is universally considered as living while his writings live. Hence he may be considered as having done a thing in a period of time not yet expired.

When preceded by certain conjunctions, such as *when, after, as soon as,* the present-perfect tense, like the present, often denotes something yet to come; as, "When I have finished my letter, I will attend to your request."

The **Past-Perfect Tense** is that form of the verb which denotes what was past and finished before some other event which is also past; as, I *had written* the letter before it was called for.

The **Future-Perfect Tense** is that form of the verb which denotes a future time prior to some other time which is itself future; as, I *shall have written* the letter before it will be called for.

Exercises.—Name the tense of each of the verbs contained in the following sentences:

I have many friends.
He is strong in hope.
John was hopeful of the result.
We have studied our lessons to-day.
Will you read so that you can be heard?
Washington determined to attack the enemy.
Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.
Rainy and cold as it was, we were compelled to go out.
James should have answered when his name was called.
He had reached this decision after he came to the place.
I shall have studied my lesson before you are prepared to go out.

In what voice and mode is each verb given?

Write sentences containing one or more of the following verbs:

Speak, hear, bring, obey, praise, blame, whistle, rejoice, deceive, betray, sleep, go, play, retire, listen.

Remarks on the Modes and Tenses

1. The Number of the Tenses in the Different Modes.—The Indicative Mode has all six of the tenses; the Subjunctive has two, the Present and the Past; the Potential has four, the Present, the Past, the Present-Perfect, and the Past-Perfect; the Imperative has only the Present.

2. The Tense, Person, and Number of the Imperative Mode.—A command, an exhortation, or an entreaty is necessarily a present act. The Imperative Mode, therefore, is always in the Present Tense. The command, exhortation, or entreaty, being spoken to some party, is necessarily in the Second Person. It is Singular or Plural according to circumstances, as its subject is usually either *thou*, or *you*, understood. Thus, "Sit still," if addressed to one person, is Singular, and means "Sit *thou* still"; if addressed to more than one, it is Plural, and means "Sit *you* still." Whether the subject of the Imperative Mode is *thou* understood, or *you*, must be learned, in each particular case, from other words in the sentence. "Brethren, pray for us." Here, the word "brethren" shows that more than one are addressed. Therefore, the verb is plural, and its subject is "you" understood. "Father, forgive them." Here, the word "father" shows that only one is addressed. The verb, therefore, is singular, and its subject is "thou" understood.

Peculiar Use of the Verbs To Have and To Be.—There is a peculiar usage of *to have* and *to be* that needs to be noted. *Were* is often used with a potential meaning, or in the sense of *would be;* thus, "I *were* an idiot thus to

speak," that is, "I *would be* an idiot thus to speak." In like manner, *had* is used in the sense of *would have;* thus, "It *had* been good for that man if he had never been born," that is, "It *would have* been good."

There is another use of *had* still more remarkable. It is where *had* bears the meaning simply of *would;* as, "I *had* as lief not be, as live to be."

IV. NUMBER AND PERSON

Verbs have variations of form to correspond with the number and person of their subject. These variations are called the Numbers and Persons of the verb.

Verbs have two numbers, Singular and Plural; and three Persons, First, Second, and Third. Thus:

Singular		*Plural*	
First Person.	I am.	*First Person.*	We are.
Second Person.	Thou art.	*Second Person.*	You are.
Third Person.	He is.	*Third Person.*	They are.

Infinitives

An **Infinitive** is that form of the verb which is not limited to a subject, or which has no subject; as, *To write, to have written, to speak, to be loved, to have been loved. To,* the sign of the infinitive, is regarded as part of the infinitive.

Infinitives have two tense forms—Present and Present-Perfect. Present: *To sit, to run, to jump.* Present-Perfect: *To have sat, to have run, to have jumped.*

Transitive infinitives have forms for both the active and the passive voice. Active: *To see, to have seen.* Passive: *To be seen, to have been seen.*

Infinitives may have the same complements and modifiers as the verbs from which they are derived.

Infinitives are sometimes called Verbals, because they have the nature of the verb in part, and also the nature of some other part of speech. Infinitives used as nouns are then called Verbal Nouns, and when used as adjectives they are called Verbal Adjectives.

Exercises.—Name the infinitives in the following sentences and give the tense and voice (if any):

1. Desire to rule is strong in man.
2. To give is better than to receive.
3. He dare do it.
4. Still achieving, still pursuing, learn to labor and to wait.
5. He was told to call his brother.
6. I saw him cut the rope.
7. He has work to do.



Participles

A **Participle** is that form of the verb which partakes of the nature of a verb and an adjective.

The Participles are three—the Present, the Past, and the Perfect.

The **Present Participle** denotes that which is now in progress; as, *going*, *being*, *living*, *working*. The present participles all end in *ing*.

The **Past Participle** denotes that which is complete or finished; as, *written*, *stolen*, *added*. It either ends in *ed*, or has an irregular form, as shown in the list of irregular verbs.

The **Perfect Participle** denotes that which is finished before something else mentioned; as, *having written*, *having stolen*, *having added*.

Participles of transitive verbs have both active and passive forms; as, *having loved* (active), *having been loved* (passive).

Participles are sometimes called Verbals because they have the nature of the verb in part and also the nature of some other part of speech. Participles used as nouns are then called Verbal Nouns, and when used as adjectives are called Verbal Adjectives.

Participles may have the same complements and modifiers as the verb from which they are derived.

Exercises.—In the following examples, name the participle, tell the kind, and how it is used:

She sat near him, writing a letter.

Stones came rattling from the cliff.

Mary, being disgusted, retired from the room.

A cunning fox, prowling around a farmyard, saw some chickens scratching vigorously for the grain hidden among the chaff.

Having concealed his valuables, he came from his hiding place, and, approaching the visitors, desired to know their mission. They, surprised at his appearance and becoming alarmed, left him standing in the road.

II. CLASSES OF VERBS

Verbs are divided into the following classes: Transitive, Intransitive; Regular, Irregular; Defective, and Auxiliary.

I. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

A **Transitive Verb** is one which requires a receiver of the act to complete the meaning; as, James *writes* a letter.

The object of a transitive verb is sometimes called its *complement* or *object complement.*

An **Intransitive Verb** is one that does not require a receiver of the act to complete the meaning; as, Birds *fly.*

Explanation.—In the sentence, *James cut the rope,* the meaning is not complete without the word *rope,* which receives the act of *cutting.* In the sentence, *Birds fly,* no receiver of the act is required, as the meaning is complete without one.

The receiver of the act is the object of the verb in the active voice; as, Columbus discovered *America.* In the passive voice the receiver of the act is subject of the verb; as, *America* was discovered by Columbus.

Remarks on Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

1. Some verbs are used both transitively and intransitively; as, "He reads well," "He reads a book."

2. Transitive verbs may be either in the active or passive voice. Intransitive verbs have no voice.

3. When verbs usually intransitive are followed by certain prepositions, the verb and preposition sometimes form a kind of compound verb, which is transitive, and admits of a passive voice: thus, we say *to laugh at* a person (active); *to be laughed at* by him (passive).

4. Verbs usually intransitive sometimes take after them an objective of kindred signification. In that case they are transitive and admit of a passive voice; as, "I run a race," "A race is run."

5. Some intransitive verbs require an adjective or noun to complete the meaning. Such verbs are called *Copula* verbs. The adjectives completing such verbs are called predicate adjectives and the nouns completing them are called predicate nominatives. The sun *was* bright. The apple *tastes* sour. Mary *seems* quiet. It *was* Frank. She *looks* tired.

6. Sometimes in the passive voice of some transitive verbs the verb has a predicate nominative or predicate adjective to complete the meaning; as, He *was elected president.* The girl *was called Isabel.* He *was considered weak.*

Exercises.—In the following sentences, state which verbs are transitive and which are intransitive:

The eagle screams.
Foxes eat chickens.
A fish was caught by James.
Roses bloom in June.
The boy raked the field.
Thou shalt not destroy life.
The eagle eats small animals.
Iron is found in Pennsylvania.
Tall oaks grow from little acorns.
The hunter found the crow's nest and destroyed it.
The house was destroyed by fire.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the following verbs in the active voice:

Lead, know, see, fear, pursue, punish, contemplate, desire, build, scare.

Change the verbs in the sentences you have written to the passive form.

II. Regular and Irregular Verbs

A **Regular Verb** is one that forms its Past Tense and Past Participle by the addition of *ed* to its present tense; as, Present, *walk;* Past, *walked;* Past Participle, *walked.*

An **Irregular Verb** is one that does not form its Past Tense and Past Participle by the addition of *ed* to its present tense; as, Present, *write;* Past, *wrote;* Past Participle, *written.*[1]

The Principal Parts of a Verb.—The Present, the Past, and the Past Participle are called the *principal parts* of a verb because all other forms of the verb can be determined from them.

[1] By some grammarians *regular* verbs are called *weak* verbs, and *irregular* verbs are called *strong* verbs.

The Irregular Verbs

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Abide	abode	abode
Am—Is	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke, awaked	awaked
Bear (*to bring forth*)	bore, bare	born
Bear (*to carry*)	bore	borne
Beat	beat	beat, beaten
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bended, bent	bended, bent
Bereave	bereaved, bereft	bereaved, bereft
Beseech	besought	besought
Bestride	bestrid, bestrode	bestrid, bestridden
Bid	bid, bade	bid, bidden
Bind	bound	bound
Bite	bit.	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build	built, builded	built, builded
Burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught, catched	caught, catched
Chide	chid	chid, chidden
Choose	chose	chosen, chose
Cleave (*to split*)	cleft, clove	cleft, cloven
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed, clad	clothed, clad
Come	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, crowed	crowed

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Cut	cut	cut
Dare (*to venture*)	dared, durst	dared
Deal	dealed, dealt	dealed, dealt
Dig	dug, digged	dug, digged
Do	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelled, dwelt	dwelled, dwelt
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	got, gotten
Gild	gilded, gilt	gilded, gilt
Gird	girded, girt	girded, girt
Give	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave	graved	graven, graved
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hanged, hung	hanged, hung
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hove
Hew	hewed	hewed, hewn
Hide	hid	hid, hidden
Hit	hit	hit
Hold	held	held

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	kneeled, knelt	kneeled, knelt
Knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laded, laden
Lay[1]	laid	laid
Lead	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie [2]	lay	lain
Light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mowed, mown
Pay	paid	paid
Pen (*to coop*)	penned, pent	penned, pent
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	ridden
Ring	rang, rung	rung
Rise	rose	risen
Rive	rived	rived, riven
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawed, sawn
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought

[1] Lay (transitive), *To place; to put; to cause to lie.*
[2] Lie (intransitive), *To be at rest in a horizontal position; to recline; to rest; to remain.*

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Seethe	seethed	seethed, sodden
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set [1]	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape	shaped	shaped, shapen
Shave	shaved	shaved, shaven
Shear	sheared	sheared, shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, shined	shone, shined
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown, showed
Shred	shred	shred
Shrink	shrunk, shrank	shrunk, shrunken
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sung, sang	sung
Sink	sunk, sank	sunk
Sit [2]	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slid, slidden
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit, slitted	slit, slitted
Smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, smelt
Smite	smote	smitten, smit
Sow	sowed	sowed, sown
Speak	spoke, spake	spoken
Speed	sped, speeded	sped, speeded
Spell	spelled, spelt	spelled, spelt
Spend	spent	spent
Spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt

[1] Set (transitive), *To place; to affix; to adjust; to plant;* (intransitive), *To fall below the horizon, as the sun.*

[2] Sit, *To be in any local position; to rest; to hold a session; to incubate.*

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Spin	spun	spun
Spit	spit, spat	spit
Split	split, splitted	split, splitted
Spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
Spread	spread	spread
Spring	sprang	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Stave	staved, stove	staved, stove
Stay	stayed, staid	stayed, staid
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk	stunk
Strew	strewed	strewed, strewn
Stride	strode	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Swear	swore	sworn
Sweat	sweat, sweated	sweat, sweated
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swelled, swollen
Swim	swam, swum	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take	took	taken
Teach	taught	taught
Tear	tore	torn
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Thrive	thrived, throve	thrived, thriven
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trod, trodden
Wax	waxed	waxed, waxen
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven, wove
Weep	wept	wept

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
Wet	wet, wetted	wet, wetted
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Work	worked, wrought	worked, wrought
Wring	wrung	wrung
Write	wrote	written

Exercise.—Fill the blanks with the proper verb (*sit* or *set*) in the following sentences:

—— down and rest.
A hen —— on eggs.
We —— on a horse.
We —— around the table.
The sun —— at five o'clock.
We —— the duck on her nest.
He —— down to take a short rest.
The boys —— by the lake watching the fish.

III. Defective Verbs

A **Defective Verb** is one that is not used in all the modes and tenses; as, *must, ought, quoth.*

IV. Auxiliary Verbs

An **Auxiliary Verb** is one which helps to form the voice, modes, and tenses of other verbs.

The auxiliary verbs are *shall, may, can, must, be, do, have,* and *will.*

The verb that follows an auxiliary is sometimes called the *principal verb.*

Remarks on the Auxiliary Verbs

1. Auxiliary or helping verbs are so called because by their help the other verbs form their passive voice and most of their modes and tenses.

2. *Be, do, have,* and sometimes *will* are also used as principal verbs; as, they *may be* here; they *do* nothing; they *have* nothing; they *will* it to be so. As principal verbs, they have all the modes and tenses which other verbs have.

3. *Be,* as an auxiliary, is used in all its modes, tenses, numbers, and persons in forming the passive voice of other verbs; as, I *am* loved, I *was* loved, I *have been* loved.

4. *Have, do, will, shall, can, may,* as auxiliaries, are used in only two forms, and *must* in only one form:

Present.	Have	do	will	shall	can	may	must.
Past.	Had	did	would	should	could	might.	

5. These forms taken by themselves may be considered as the present and the past, but they do not always form the present and past when in combination with the other auxiliaries or with the principal verb.

6. *Shall, may, can,* and *must* are defective, having only the tenses given above, and are never used except as auxiliaries.

Exercise.—What is the meaning or intent of the verb in each of the following sentences?

Shall I go?
Can she go?
Will you go?
May I come?
Must friends part?
Could you stand the fatigue?
Should he be permitted to speak?
I might come if you would ask consent.

III. CONJUGATION

The **Conjugation** of a verb is the orderly arrangement of its voices, modes, tenses, numbers, and persons.

The verb "To Be" is irregular and intransitive.

Conjugation of the Verb *To Be*

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. Thou art.	2. You are.
3. He is.	3. They are.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou wast.	2. You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

Future Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I shall be.	1. We shall be.
2. Thou wilt be.	2. You will be.
3. He will be.	3. They will be.

Present-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. Thou hast been.	2. You have been.
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

Past-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. Thou hadst been.	2. You had been.
3. He had been.	3. They had been.

Future-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I shall have been.	1. We shall have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.	2. You will have been.
3. He will have been.	3. They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

(Generally preceded by the conjunctions *if, though, although, lest,* etc.)

Prcsent Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I be.	1. We be.
2. Thou be.	2. You be.
3. He be.	3. They be.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I were.	1. We were.
2. Thou wert.	2. You were.
3. He were.	3. They were.

POTENTIAL MODE

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I may be.	1. We may be.
2. Thou mayst be.	2. You may be.
3. He may be.	3. They may be.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
3. I might be.	1. We might be.
2. Thou mightst be.	2. You might be.
3. He might be.	3. They might be.

Present-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I may have been.	1. We may have been.
2. Thou mayst have been.	2. You may have been.
3. He may have been	3. They may have been.

Past-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I might have been.	1. We might have been.
2. Thou mightst have been.	2. You might have been.
3. He might have been.	3. They might have been.

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present Tense

2. Be, *or* be thou. 2. Be, *or* be you.

INFINITIVES

Present. To be. *Present-Perfect.* To have been.

PARTICIPLES

Present. Being. *Past.* Been.
Perfect. Having been.

Remarks on the Conjugation

1. In the formation of the Futures, we have two Auxiliaries, *shall* and *will*. For the expression of simple futurity, we use *shall* in the First Person, and *will* in the Second and Third Persons, as given in the table. On the other hand, by using *will* in the First Person, we express the determination of the speaker for himself and associates; by using *shall* in the Second and Third Persons, we express the determination of the speaker as to the actions or states of others. In other words, *shall* in the First Person, and *will* in the Second and Third Persons, foretell or express a future action. *Will* in the First Person, and *shall* in the Second and Third Persons, express a promise or a threat.

2. The singular form, *thou art*, is now used only in acts of worship, or on other solemn occasions. In ordinary discourse, in addressing one person, we say *you are, you were*, etc., the meaning being singular, but the form plural.

3. In the Third Person, the subject of the verb may be any of the personal pronouns, *he, she, it;* any of the relative pronouns, *who, which, what, that*, etc., or any noun. For convenience of recitation, one subject only is inserted.

4. In the Potential Mode the auxiliary may be—
In the Present Tense, *may, can*, or *must.*
In the Past Tense, *might, could, would*, or *should.*

In the Present-Perfect Tense, *may have, can have,* or *must have.*

In the Past-Perfect Tense, *might have, could have, would have,* or *should have.*

5. In conjugating the Subjunctive Mode, the conjunction before the verb may be *if, though, although, unless, except, whether, lest,* etc. It may also be conjugated in the Past Tense by transposing the nominative and verb. Thus: *were I, wert thou, were he; were we, were you, were they.*

Exercises.—Fill the blanks with *shall* or *will:*

—— I set the table?

I —— go to town this afternoon, but my sister —— go to-morrow.

How old —— you be in October?

Mary is determined that the boy —— help her.

—— I call the boys?

We —— have to run to catch the train.

She —— meet you at her cousin's house.

—— I call for you as I pass the house?

If you —— come into the next room, I think we —— see him.

—— I be permitted to speak to the lady?

I —— drown, nobody —— help me.

—— we be contented?

You —— be satisfied.

I —— go to the circus.

There —— be no danger as father —— go.

When —— I receive the money?

What dress —— I wear?

They —— not remain in the house.

—— you take part in the exercises?

I wonder if Lucy —— remember to tell her mother.

Do you think we —— have a good time?

Conjugate the verb "to be" through the Indicative Mode, using "she" in the third person singular.

Conjugate the verb through the Indicative Mode, using "it" in the third person singular.

Conjugate the verb through the Indicative Mode, using "the man" for the subject in the singular, and "the men" for the subject in the plural.

Conjugate it in the Potential Mode, Present Tense, using "can" instead of "may." Conjugate it, using "must."

Conjugate it in the Past Tense, using "could"; using "would"; using "should."

Conjugate it in the Present-Perfect Tense, using "can have"; using "must have."

Conjugate it in the Past-Perfect Tense, using "could have"; using "would have"; using "should have."

Conjugate the verbs given by using nouns as subjects when possible, and completing the sentence when the verb is transitive, etc.

Write the forms of conjugation in each of the modes and tenses, using a different verb for each number and person of each of the tenses of the several modes.

Conjugation of the Verb *To Love*

I. Active Voice

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I love.	1. We love.
2. Thou lovest.	2. You love.
3. He loves.	3. They love.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I loved.	1. We loved.
2. Thou lovedst.	2. You loved.
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

Future Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I shall love.	1. We shall love.
2. Thou wilt love.	2. You will love.
3. He will love.	3. They will love.

Present-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I have loved.	1. We have loved.
2. Thou hast loved.	2. You have loved.
3. He has loved.	3. They have loved.

Past-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I had loved.	1. We had loved.
2. Thou hadst loved.	2. You had loved.
3. He has loved.	3. They had loved.

Future-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I shall have loved.	1. We shall have loved.
2. Thou wilt have loved.	2. You will have loved.
3. He will have loved.	3. They will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

(Generally preceded by the conjunctions *if, though, although, lest,* etc.)

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I love.	1. We love.
2. Thou love.	2. You love.
3. He love.	3. They love.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I loved.	1. We loved.
2. Thou loved.	2. You loved.
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

POTENTIAL MODE

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I may love.	1. We may love.
2. Thou mayst love.	2. You may love.
3. He may love.	3. They may love.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I might love.	1. We might love.
2. Thou mightst love.	2. You might love.
3. He might love.	3. They might love.

Present-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I may have loved.	1. We may have loved.
2. Thou mayst have loved.	2. You may have loved.
3. He may have loved.	3. They may have loved.

Past-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I migh have loved.	1. We might have loved.
2. Thou mightst have loved.	2. You might have loved.
3. He might have loved.	3. They might have loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
Love, *or* love thou.	Love, *or* love you.

INFINITIVES

Present. To love. *Present-Perfect.* To have loved.

PARTICIPLES

Present. Loving. *Past.* Loved.
Perfect. Having loved.

II. Passive Voice

The **Passive Voice** of a verb is formed by placing before its Past Participle the various modes, tenses, numbers, and persons of the verb *To be.*

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I am loved.	1. We are loved.
2. Thou art loved.	2. You are loved.
3. He is loved.	3. They are loved.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I was loved.	1. We were loved.
2. Thou wast loved.	2. You were loved.
3. He was loved.	3. They were loved.

Future Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I shall be loved.	1. We shall be loved.
2. Thou wilt be loved.	2. You will be loved.
3. He will be loved.	3. They will be loved.

Present-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I have been loved.	1. We have been loved.
2. Thou hast been loved.	2. You have been loved.
3. He has been loved.	3. They have been loved.

Past-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I had been loved.	1. We had been loved.
2. Thou hadst been loved.	2. You had been loved.
3. He had been loved.	3. They had been loved.

Future-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I shall have been loved.	1. We shall have been loved.
2. Thou wilt have been loved.	2. You will have been loved.
3. He will have been loved.	3. They will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

(Generally preceded by the conjunctions *if, though, although, lest,* etc.)

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I be loved.	1. We be loved.
2. Thou be loved.	2. You be loved.
3. He be loved.	3. They be loved.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I were loved.	1. We were loved.
2. Thou wert loved.	2. You were loved.
3. He were loved.	3. They were loved.

POTENTIAL MODE

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I may be loved.	1. We may be loved.
2. Thou mayst be loved.	2. You may be loved.
3. He may be loved.	3. They may be loved.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I might be loved.	1. We might be loved.
2. Thou mightst be loved.	2. You might be loved.
3. He might be loved.	3. They might be loved.

Present-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I may have been loved.	1. We may have been loved.
2. Thou mayst have been loved.	2. You may have been loved.
3. He may have been loved.	3. They may have been loved.

Past-Perfect Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I might have been loved.	1. We might have been loved.
2. Thou mightst have been loved.	2. You might have been loved.
3. He might have been loved.	3. They might have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE

Present Tense

2. Be loved, *or* be thou loved. 2. Be loved, *or* be you loved.

INFINITIVES

Present. To be loved. *Present-Perfect.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES

Present. Being loved. *Past.* Loved.
Perfect. Having been loved.

III. Progressive Form

The **Progressive Form** of a verb is that form which represents the action as in progress, or as incomplete.

The progressive form of any verb is made by placing before its Present Participle the various modes, tenses, numbers, and persons of the verb *to be.* Thus: *I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing.*

EXERCISES IN THE PROGRESSIVE FORM

Conjugate the verb "sing" through all the tenses of the Indicative Mode, in the progressive form.

Conjugate "know" through the Subjunctive Mode, progressive form.

Conjugate "write" through the Potential Mode, progressive form.

Conjugate "stand" through the Imperative Mode and give the infinitives, progressive form.

IV. Emphatic Form

The **Emphatic Form** of a verb is that in which the assertion is expressed with emphasis.

The emphatic form of a verb is made by placing before the infinitive of the principal verb the verb *do* as an auxiliary.

The emphatic form is used only in the Present and Past tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive modes, Active voice, and in the Imperative mode, both Active and Passive.

Conjugation of the Verb *To Love*, in the Emphatic Form

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I do love.	1. We do love.
2. Thou dost love.	2. You do love.
3. He does love.	3. They do love.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I did love.	1. We did love.
2. Thou didst love.	2. You did love.
3. He did love.	3. They did love.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

(Generally preceded by the conjunctions *if, though, although, lest,* etc.)

Present Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I do love.	1. We do love.
2. Thou do love.	2. You do love.
3. He do love.	3. They do love.

Past Tense

Singular	*Plural*
1. I did love.	1. We did love.
2. Thou did love.	2. You did love.
3. He did love.	3. They did love.

IMPERATIVE MODE

Active Voice—Present Tense

Singular. Do (thou) love. *Plural.* Do (you) love.

Passive Voice—Present Tense

Singular. Do (thou) be loved. *Plural.* Do (you) be loved.

The participle of a transitive verb, with its object, is called a *participial phrase,* and is adjectival in character.

The infinitive of a transitive verb is called an *infinitive phrase,* and is adverbial or adjectival in character.

A verb is conjugated negatively by using the adverb "not" in each of the persons and numbers.

Exercises.—In the following sentences and paragraphs, name each part of speech, its class, its properties, and its use. State what each article and each adjective modifies. Name the word to which each pronoun refers. Name the voice (if any), mode, tense, number, and person of each verb. Name the gender, number, person, and case of each noun and pronoun. Name the subject of each verb. Name the phrases, and tell the kind, its use, and what it modifies.

If he acquire riches, they will corrupt his mind.

Though he is high, he hath respect to the lowly.

Despise not any condition, lest it happen to be thine own.

A witty punster may afford amusement to persons, but amusement is not the business of life, though it tends ever so much to relieve the mind. Therefore, do not consider him a model worthy of imitation.

My son, wert thou a father, thou couldst understand the feelings of him who now mourns over the wrongs which thou hast committed. Had I been thy son, I think I should not only have been grieved on account of that which I had done, but also should have regretted that I had caused sorrow in the breast of him who loved me so tenderly.

The miser will will his property to those who will perhaps use it for sinful purposes. Had he had less avarice, his happiness would have been increased. Do not do as he does, lest thou, like him, become a wretched man, and have to say, "I have been heaping up riches all my life, but I have not been increasing my happiness. Had I been adding to the happiness of others, and laying up treasures where moth and rust do not corrupt, I should have been employing myself better and saving my soul."

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

What is a verb? Give an example. What attributes do verbs have? What is a participle? Why so called? How many classes of participles are there? Name them. What does each denote? Give examples of each. What is voice? How many voices do transitive verbs have? Name them. Define each. Give examples of each.

What is mode? How many modes do verbs have? Define each. Give examples of each. Why are infinitives so called? What is tense? How many tenses do verbs have? Define each. Give examples of each. Do verbs have number and person? Do they indicate in themselves the idea of number or person? Whence then derived?

Define transitive verb. Intransitive verb. What kind of verbs have voice? What is a copula verb? Can a verb be used both transitively and intransitively? Give examples. What is a regular verb? An irregular verb? Give examples. Define impersonal verb. Defective verb. Auxiliary verb. Give examples. Why so called? Name the auxiliary verbs. How used? What are defective verbs? Why so called? Give examples. What is meant by conjugation? Give an example. What auxiliaries are peculiar to the potential mode? What auxiliary is peculiar to certain tenses? How is the passive voice formed? How is the emphatic form of a verb made?

Write a composition on verbs.

VI. THE ADVERB

An **Adverb** is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, He writes *rapidly*, A *very* fast horse, He wrote *very* rapidly.

Classification of Adverbs According to Use

According to use, adverbs are classified as Simple Adverbs and Conjunctive Adverbs.

Simple Adverbs

A Simple Adverb merely qualifies the meaning of the word which it modifies.

Examples.—Come *here instantly* and answer me *more respectfully*, or you will receive a *very* severe correction.

"Here" modifies the verb "come," it tells *where* you are to come.

"Instantly" also modifies "come," it tells *when* you are to come.

"Respectfully" modifies the verb "answer," it tells *in what manner* you are to answer.

"More" modifies the adverb "respectfully," it tells *how* respectfully you are to answer.

"Very" modifies the adjective "severe," it tells *how* severe the punishment will be.

Conjunctive Adverbs

Conjunctive Adverbs perform at the same time the office of adverbs and of conjunctions; as, "They will come *when* they are ready." Here, "*when*" declares the time of the action, therefore it is an adverb; it also connects the clause with the verb "will come," and therefore it is a conjunction. Such adverbs are called by some grammarians *conjunctive adverbs;* by others, *adverbial conjunctions.* The most common of them are *when, where, whither, whenever, wherever, then, how, whence, why, as, before, after, until.*

Conjunctive adverbs must introduce clauses.

Classification of Adverbs According to Meaning

Adverbs are divided into classes, according to their meaning. The most important of these classes are—

1. **Adverbs of Manner or Quality;** as, *well, ill, swiftly, smoothly, truly,* and many others formed from adjectives by adding the termination *ly.* This is by far the most numerous class of adverbs.

2. **Adverbs of Place;** as, *here, there, where, hither, thither, whither, hence, thence, whence, somewhere, nowhere.*

3. **Adverbs of Time;** as, *now, then, when, ever, never, soon, often, seldom, lately.*

4. **Adverbs of Quantity;** as, *much, little, sufficiently, enough, scarcely.*

5. **Adverbs of Direction;** as, *downward, upward, for-*

ward, backward, homeward, heavenward, hitherward, thitherward.

6. **Adverbs of Number, Order, etc.** (including all those formed from the Numeral Adjectives); as, *first, secondly, thirdly; once, twice, thrice; singly, doubly, triply.*

7. **Adverbs of Affirmation and Negation;** as, *yes, no, verily, indeed, nay, nowise, doubtless.*

8. **Adverbs of Interrogation;** as, *how, why, when, where, whither, whence.*

9. **Adverbs of Comparison;** as, *more, most, less, least, better, best, very, exceedingly, nearly, almost.*

10. **Adverbs of Uncertainty;** as, *perchance, perhaps, peradventure.*

Remarks on Adverbs

1. Adverbs are not necessary parts of speech, as their meaning may always he expressed by other parts of speech. They usually express in one word what would otherwise require several words. *Here*, for instance, means "in this place."

2. Some of the adverbs appear to be formed by the combination of two or more words, which have gradualy coalesced into one. Thus, *bravely* is an abbreviation of brave-*like; wisely*, of wise-*like; happily*, of happy-*like*. Others again are composed of nouns, and the letter *a* used for *at, on*, etc.; as, *a*side, *a*head, *a*broad, *a*shore, *a*ground, *a*float.

3. The adverb *there* is often used as a mere expletive, without apparently any signification of its own, as in the sentence, "*There* was a man sent from God, whose name was John."

4. Some words are used sometimes as adverbs and sometimes as adjectives. Among these are the following: *little, less, least, better, best, much, more, most, no, only, well, ill, still, first, next, hard, fast, early, late, daily.* If any of these words modifies a noun, it is an adjective; but if it modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb, it is an adverb.

Comparison of Adverbs

The arrangement of an adverb in its different degrees is called its Comparison.

Degrees of Comparison

Adverbs, like adjectives, have three degrees of comparison—Positive, Comparative, and Superlative; as, Positive, *fast;* Comparative, *faster;* Superlative, *fastest.*

Methods of Comparison

There are three ways of comparing adverbs. Two ways are usually spoken of as the Regular Comparisons, and the third as the Irregular.

Regular Comparisons

1. Some adverbs form the Comparative by adding *er* to the Positive, and the Superlative by adding *est* to the Positive; as Positive, *soon;* Comparative, *sooner;* Superlative, *soonest.*

2. Adverbs ending in *ly* form the Comparative by prefixing *more* or *less* to the Positive, and the Superlative by prefixing *most* or *least* to the Positive; as, Positive, *slowly;* Comparative, *more* or *less slowly;* Superlative, *most* or *least slowly.*

Irregular Comparison

3. Some adverbs are compared irregularly; as,

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
Badly	worse	worst
Far	farther	farthest
Ill	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Well	better	best

Exercises.—Write sentences, each containing one or more of the conjunctive adverbs.

Show by sentences how the words named in paragraph 4, page 93, may be used as adjectives and also as adverbs.

Compare the adverbs *freely, wisely, soon, long, earnestly, scarcely, truly.*

Show that they are adverbs by using them in sentences and telling what they modify.

In the following sentences, name the part of speech of each word, its class, its attributes, and its use. Name each verb used and give its subject. Name the articles, adjectives, and adverbs used as modifiers, and tell what they modify

Softly, slowly, toll the bell.

He was absent twice in one week.

I know a spot where the wild rose blooms.

We had nearly reached our destination when the sun set.

You take my life, when you take the means whereby I live.

Night's candles are burnt out, and jocund day stands tiptoe on the misty mountain top.

When the water was hot enough, he boiled the herbs in it thoroughly and made the tea sufficiently strong.

The wind bloweth where it listeth, and thou hearest the sound thereof, but can'st not tell whence it cometh and whither it goeth.

This idle boy was the least attentive of the scholars, and studied least. He, therefore, received the least amount of benefit. Better boys will behave better and reap a better reward.

There was no author who spoke more fluently. Thrice was he applauded. Turn your eye whither you would, you might see persons attentively listening. Seldom was such an attentive multitude assembled in our much too quiet village.

Write the preceding sentences, using other adverbs instead of those given.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

What is an adverb? Give examples illustrating all its uses. What is a conjunctive adverb? What is it sometimes called? Why so called? Give examples.

Are adverbs compared? How? Give some irregular comparisons. Into how many classes are adverbs divided according to use? According to meaning? Give the names of the classes. Name three adverbs of each of the classes.

Write a composition on adverbs.

VII. THE CONJUNCTION

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, sentences, and parts of sentences; as, John *and* James study; *If* I go, you must do the work; He is *neither* strong in body *nor* sound in mind.

The following are the principal conjunctions: *also, although, and, as, because, both, but, either, for, if, lest, neither, nor, or, since, than, that, then, therefore, though, unless, wherefore, whether, yet.*

Classification

Conjunctions are divided into two general classes: Co-ordinate Conjunctions and Subordinate Conjunctions.

A **Co-ordinate Conjunction** connects sentences or parts of sentences of equal rank; as, "James went to school, *but* Howard went down town." "Washington *and* Napoleon were great generals."

The principal co-ordinate conjunctions are *and, but, nor, or, yet.*

A **Subordinate Conjunction** connects parts of sentences of unequal rank; as, "He said *that* he was going." "I will go *if* you will go."

The principal subordinate conjunctions are *as, because, except, if, provided, than, that, unless, since.*

Remarks on Conjunctions

1. Subordinate conjunctions always connect a clause with the main statement.

2. Co-ordinate conjunctions must connect word with word, phrase with phrase, clause with clause, or sentence with sentence.

3. When conjunctions connect words, the words so connected must be the same parts of speech, that is, a verb and a verb, an adjective and an adjective, etc., except that nouns and pronouns may be connected by a conjunction.

4. Some conjunctions are used in pairs. Such conjunctions are called *Correlative* or *Corresponding* Conjunctions. The principal correlative conjunctions are *as—so, although—yet, both—and, either—or, neither—nor, whether —or, if—then, though—yet.*

5. Sometimes the connection of the words or sentences is made, not by any one conjunction, but by two or more conjunctions, not correlatives, taken together. Such combinations of words are called *Complex* Conjunctions, The principal complex conjunctions are *as if, as well as, but that, except that, forasmuch as, inasmuch as, even though.*

6. All conjunctions are used to connect, but all connectives are not conjunctions. Conjunctive adverbs, relative pronouns, and prepositions are used as connectives.

Exercises.—In the following sentences, name the part of speech of each word, its class, its attributes, and its use. Name the conjunctions, and tell what they connect:

Any coward can fight a battle when he is sure of winning; but give me the man who has the pluck to fight when he is sure of losing.

Unless a man lacks virtue, whether he is humble in rank or poor in purse, he is worthy of respect and esteem.

Yet there are some who, notwithstanding their wealth and the advantages of fortune, are deemed respectable, though their vicious habits should subject them to contempt. These shun the virtuous poor, lest they might degrade themselves in their own estimation. But they forget that they might be improved by intercourse with their virtuous but poor brethren.

Insert proper conjunctions in the following parapraphs:

I shall need an umbrella, —— it rain to-morrow; —— —— it be a clear day, I shall not need it, —— I never use it to protect me from the sun.

The colonel remained at his post, —— he was near fainting from the loss of blood —— the pain of his wounds. He declared —— no one else should stand by the flag; he would protect it while he had life —— strength left. Faithfully —— heroically he kept his word.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

What is a conjunction? Give examples of its different uses. Name the principal conjunctions. Into what classes divided? Give the use of a coördinate conjunction. A subordinate conjunction. What is a correlative or corresponding conjunction? A complex conjunction? Give examples of each kind, and illustrate its use by appropriate sentences.

Write a composition on conjunctions.

VIII. THE PREPOSITION

A Preposition is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word; as, He writes *with* a pen; He lives *in* a tent; A man *of* wisdom.

The principal relations indicated by prepositions are *time*, *place*, *cause*, *possession*, *manner*, etc.

Simple Prepositions

The Simple Prepositions are nineteen: *after, at, by, down, for, from, in, of, on, over, past, round, since, through, till, to, under, up, with.*

Compound Prepositions

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by prefixing *a* to some other word: *about, above, across, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, athwart.*

The prefix *a,* which occurs in these and so many other English compounds, represents a variety of small words, such as *at, of, in, on, to.* In the compound prepositions *a* usually represents *on* or *in.* The other part of the compound is some noun, adjective, adverb, or other preposition.

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by prefixing *be* to some other words: *before, behind, below, beneath, beside* or *besides, between* or *betwixt, beyond.*

The following Compound Prepositions are formed by uniting without change two prepositions, or a preposition and an adverb: *into, throughout, toward, towards, underneath, unto, upon, within, without.*

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the simple and compound prepositions named.

A preposition with its related word is called a *prepositional phrase.* Phrases of this kind are adjective or adverbial, and modify nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs, after the manner of adjectives and adverbs.

Exercises.—In the following paragraphs, name the part of speech of each word, its class, its attributes, and its use. Select the prepositional phrases, and tell whether they modify as adjectives or as adverbs:

In the morning of a sunny Sabbath day, the village children, with happy fa es, were on their way to the house

of God. The sun that looked down from above upon them, the blue sky over them, and the flowery earth beneath their feet, were not more brilliant than the glance of their eyes. Hand in hand they went along the path leading to the church, with praise upon their tongues and gratitude reigning within their hearts.

Fitz James was brave; though to his heart
The life-blood thrilled with sudden start,
He manned himself with dauntless air,
Returned the chief his haughty stare,
His back against a rock he bore,
And firmly placed his foot before;—
Come one, come all! this rock shall fly
From its firm base as soon as I.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

What is a preposition? Name some of the relations indicated. Name the simple prepositions. How are the compound prepositions formed? Name those formed by prefixing *a*. Name those formed by prefixing *be*. Name those formed by uniting two prepositions. What is a prepositional phrase?

Write a composition on prepositions.

IX. THE INTERJECTION

An **Interjection** is a word used in making sudden exclamations; as, *oh! ah! alas!*

The principal interjections are *adieu, ah, aha, alack, alas, begone, ha, hail, hallo, hark, he, hist, ho, hum, hush, huzza, lo, O, oh, pshaw, see.*

O is used before a noun, and is not followed directly by any mark of punctuation. The exclamation point is used at the end of the expression.

Oh is an interjection denoting emotion, pleasurable or otherwise, and the exclamation point follows it.

Write sentences, each containing one or more of the interjections.

WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

As, meaning *because* or *since,* is a Conjunction. Example: *As* the wind was favorable, we set sail. It is also a part of the Correlative Conjunction *as—so,* and of several Complex Conjunctions, *as well as,* etc.

As, meaning *like, while,* or *when,* is an Adverbial Conjunction. Example: He came *as* I was going.

Before, After, Till, and **Until,** when followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, are Prepositions.

Examples:

Come *before* dinner.
Come *after* dinner.
Wait *till* midnight.
Wait *until* your turn.

Before, After, Till, and **Until,** denoting time and introducing a clause, and not followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case, are Conjunctive Adverbs. Examples:

Come *before* I have dined.
Come *after* I have dined.
Wait *till* I have dined.
Remain seated *until* the car stops.

Both is a Pronominal Adjective when it means *the two* and modifies a noun; as, *Both* shoes need mending.

Both is an Adjective Pronoun when it means *the two* and stands for a noun; as, *Both* need mending.

Both is a Conjunction (part of the correlative *both—and*) when it connects; as, I *both* love *and* respect him.

But is a Preposition when it means *except;* as, He lost all his books *but* his dictionary.

But is an Adverb when it means *only;* as, I *but* touched him and he cried.

But is a Conjunction when it connects principal statements and dependent clauses; as, He tried very hard, *but* he was not successful.

Either is a Pronominal Adjective when it means *one of the two* and modifies a noun; as, *Either* boy may do it.

Either is an Adjective Pronoun when it means *one of the two* and stands for a noun; as, *Either* may do it.

Either is a Conjunction (part of the correlative *either—or*) when it connects; as, *Either* you *or* I must write the letter.

Neither is a Pronominal Adjective when it means *not one of the two* and modifies a noun; as, *Neither* girl may go.

Neither is an Adjective Pronoun when it means *not one of the two* and stands for a noun; as, *Neither* may go.

Neither is a Conjunction (part of the correlative *neither—nor*) when it connects; as, *Neither* John *nor* James succeeded.

For is a Conjunction when it means *because,* and is used in giving a reason; as, I obey him, *for* he is my father, that is, because he is my father.

For is a Preposition when followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case; as, The vessel sailed *for* Europe.

Since, meaning *for the reason that,* is a Conjunction; as, *Since* it is your wish, I will certainly do it.

Since, when placed before a noun denoting a period of time, is a Preposition; as, I have had no food *since* Monday.

Since is an Adverb when denoting time; as, I have not been there *since.*

Since is a Conjunctive Adverb when it denotes time and introduces a clause; as, I have not seen him *since* he was here.

Then, meaning *in that case* or *therefore,* is a Conjunction; as, If all this be so, *then* I am right.

Then is an Adverb when it denotes time; as, He came *then.*

That is a Relative Pronoun when either *who, whom,* or *which* may be used in its place; as, He is the wisest man *that* lives in our village.

That is a Pronominal Adjective when *the* may be used instead of it; as, *That* house was burned.

That is an Adjective Pronoun when it has the nature of *the* and stands for a noun; as, *That* was burned.

That is a Conjunction when used to connect and when *who, whom,* or *which* cannot be used in its place; as, He wears warm clothes *that* he may not catch cold.

What is a Relative Pronoun when *that which* or *those which* can be used in its stead; as, Eat *what* is set before you. That is, Eat *that which* is set before you.

What is an Interrogative Pronoun when used to ask a question; as, *What* do you see?

What is a Pronominal Adjective when joined with a noun, but not asking a question; as, *What* wonders he performed. He gave *what* money he had to the poor.

What, when uttered as a mere exclamation and to denote surprise, is an Interjection; as, *What!* abuse your mother!

While, meaning *to pass* or *spend time,* is a Verb; as, They managed to *while* away the hour very pleasantly.

While, meaning *a portion of time,* is a Noun; as, Let us sing a *while.*

While, meaning *during the time that,* is a Conjunctive Adverb; as, The act was done *while* I was absent.

Yet, meaning *nevertheless, notwithstanding,* is a Conjunction; as, Though he slay me, *yet* will I trust him.

Yet, meaning *up to a certain time* or *over and above,* is an Adverb; as, Has the boy come *yet?* I will give you *yet* one more reason

FORMS FOR PARSING

Sentences.—(*a*) "Wolfe captured Quebec, which was a French stronghold."

(*b*) "Father gave you those books, but he gave these to me."

(*c*) "Some early explorers came to find gold."

(*d*) "The American forces, defeating the scattered troops, marched rapidly on toward the fort."

(*e*) "Philadelphia, the largest city of Pennsylvania, is in the southeastern part."

(*f*) "The battle began when the sun rose."

(*g*) "John and James are going."

1. **Nouns.**— "——" is a $\frac{\text{——}}{\text{(Class.)}}$ noun, —— gender, —— number, —— person, —— case. (Reason for case.)

Parsing of "Wolfe" (sentence *a*).

"Wolfe" is a proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, nominative case, subject of the verb "captured."

2. **Relative Pronouns.**— "——" is a relative pronoun, standing for and relating back to its antecedent the noun "——," with which it agrees in —— gender, —— number, —— person. It is also in the —— case. (Reason for case.)

Parsing of "which" (sentence *a*).

"Which" is a relative pronoun, standing for and relating back to its antecedent the proper noun "Quebec," with which it agrees in neuter gender, singular number, and third person. It is also in the nominative case, subject of the verb "was."

3. **Personal and Adjective Pronouns.**— "——" is a personal pronoun and agrees with the noun "——," for adjective which it stands in —— gender, —— number, —— person. It is also in the —— case. (Reason for case.)

Parsing of "he" (sentence *b*).

"He" is a personal pronoun and agrees with the noun "father," for which it stands in masculine gender, singular number, third person. It is also in the nominative case, subject of the verb "gave."

Parsing of "these" (sentence *b*).

"These" is an adjective pronoun and agrees with the noun "books," for which it stands in neuter gender, plural number, third person. It is also in the objective case, object of the verb "gave."

4. **Predicate Verbs.**— "——" is a regular, irregular, transitive, intransitive verb, —— voice (if any), —— mode, —— tense, and agrees with its subject the noun, pronoun "——" in —— number and —— person.

Parsing of "captured" (sentence *a*).

"Captured" is a regular transitive verb, active voice, indicative mode, past tense, and agrees with its subject the noun "Wolfe" in singular number and third person.

5. **Infinitives.**— "——" is an infinitive formed from the verb "——." It is regular, irregular, transitive, intransitive, and is in the —— voice (if any), —— tense, and (Give use in sentence.)

Parsing of "to find" (sentence *c*).

"To find" is an infinitive formed from the verb *find*. It is irregular, transitive, and is in the active voice, present tense, and modifies the verb "came."

6. **Participles.**— "——" is a present, past, past perfect, active, passive (if either) participle, derived from the verb "——," and (Give use in sentence).

Parsing of "defeating" (sentence *d*).

"Defeating" is a present active participle, derived from the verb *defeat*, and modifies the noun "forces."

7. **Articles.**— "——" is $\begin{matrix}\text{a definite}\\\text{an indefinite}\end{matrix}$ article and modifies the noun "——."

Parsing of "a" (sentence *a*).

"A" is an indefinite article and modifies the noun "stronghold."

8. **Adjectives.**— "——" is a $\underline{\text{(Class.)}}$ adjective in the —— degree (if any), and modifies the noun "——."

Parsing of "largest" (sentence *e*).

"Largest" is a common adjective in the superlative degree and modifies the noun "city."

9. **Adverbs.**— "——" is an adverb in the —— degree (if any) and modifies the $\underline{\text{(Part of speech.)}}$ "——."

Parsing of "rapidly" (sentence *d*).

"Rapidly" is an adverb in the positive degree and modifies the verb "marched."

10. **Conjunctive Adverbs.**— "——" is a conjunctive adverb modifying the verb "——" and connecting the dependent clause, "————," with the independent clause, "————."

Parsing of "when" (sentence *f*).

"When" is a conjunctive adverb modifying the verb "rose" and connecting the dependent clause, "when the sun rose," with the independent clause, "The battle began."

11. **Prepositions.**— "——" is a preposition, showing relation between the $\begin{matrix}\text{noun}\\\text{pronoun}\end{matrix}$ "——," which it governs in the objective case, and the $\underline{\text{(Part of speech.)}}$ "——."

Parsing of "to" (sentence *b*).

"To" is a preposition, showing the relation between the pronoun "me," which it governs in the objective case, and the verb "gave."

12. **Conjunctions.**— "——" is a conjunction connecting the two $\begin{matrix}\text{members, clauses, phrases,}\\\text{nouns, verbs, etc.}\end{matrix}$ "————" and "————."

The subordinate conjunction introduces a clause and connects it with the independent clause.

Parsing of "and" (sentence *g*).

"And" is a conjunction connecting the two nouns, "John" and "James."

13. **Interjections.**—To parse an interjection, state the part of speech.

FORMS FOR FUNCTION OR USE

In order more clearly to show the difference between parsing and use, the same words have been used in the illustrations in *use* as were used in *parsing*.

Sentences.—(*a*) "Wolfe captured Quebec, which was a French stronghold."

(*b*) "Father gave you those books, but he gave these to me."

(*c*) "Some early explorers came to find gold."

(*d*) "The American forces, defeating the scattered troops, marched rapidly on toward the fort."

(*e*) "Philadelphia, the largest city of Pennsylvania, is in the southeastern part."

(*f*) "The battle began when the sun rose."

(*g*) "John and James are going."

1. **Nouns.**— "——" is a $\frac{\text{(Class.)}}{}$ noun, $\frac{\text{subject}}{\text{object}}$ of the $\frac{\text{verb}}{\text{preposition}}$ "——" and tells ———.

Use of "Wolfe" (sentence *a*).

"Wolfe" is a proper noun, subject of the verb "captured," and tells who captured.

2. **Relative Pronouns.**— "——" is a relative pronoun, standing for and relating back to its antecedent the $\frac{\text{noun}}{\text{pronoun}}$ "——." It introduces the relative clause "———" and connects it with the $\frac{\text{noun}}{\text{pronoun}}$ "———."

It is also subject / object of the verb / preposition "——" and tells ——.

Use of "which" (sentence *a*).

"Which" is a relative pronoun, standing for and relating back to its antecedent, the noun "Quebec." It introduces the relative clause, "which was a French stronghold," and connects it with the noun "Quebec." It is also subject of the verb "was," and tells what was.

3. **Personal and Adjective Pronouns.**— "——" is a an (Class.) pronoun, standing for the noun "——." It is subject / object of the verb / preposition "——" and tells ——.

Use of "he" (sentence *b*).

"He" is a personal pronoun, standing for the noun "father." It is subject of the verb "gave," and tells who gave.

Use of "these" (sentence *b*).

"These" is an adjective pronoun, standing for the noun "books." It is object of the verb "gave" and tells what was given.

4. **Predicate Verbs.**— "——" is a verb, predicate of the independent / dependent clause "———," and tells what its subject, "——," did. (If passive voice, then the verb tells what was done to the subject.)

Use of "captured" (sentence *a*).

"Captured" is a verb, predicate of the independent clause, "Wolfe captured Quebec," and tells what its subject, "Wolfe," did.

5, 6. **Infinitives and Participles.**— "——" is an infinitive / a participle and modifies the (Part of speech.) "——" and tells ——. If it introduces a phrase, add: and introduces the participial / infinitive phrase "———" and connects it

with the (Part of speech.) "——"; also governs the (Part of speech.) "——" in the objective case.

Use of "to find" (sentence *e*).

"To find" is an infinitive and modifies the verb "came," telling why they came. It introduces the infinitive phrase, "to find gold," and connects it with the verb "came"; also governs the noun "gold" in the objective case.

Use of "defeating" (sentence *d*).

"Defeating" is a participle and modifies the noun "forces." It introduces the participial phrase, "defeating the scattered troops," and connects it with the noun "forces," also governs the noun "troops" in the objective case.

7. **Articles.**— "——" is an article used in a definite / an indefinite sense, to point out the noun "——."

Use of "a" (sentence *a*).

"A" is an article used in an indefinite sense to point out the noun "stronghold."

8. **Adjectives.**— "——" is a (Class.) adjective and modifies the noun / pronoun "——" and tells what kind of / how many ——.

Use of "largest" (sentence *e*).

"Largest" is a common adjective and modifies the noun "city," and tells what kind of city.

9. **Adverbs.**— "——" is an adverb, modifying the how, / where, (Part of speech.) "——" and tells when, etc., ——.

Use of "rapidly" (sentence *d*).

"Rapidly" is an adverb modifying the verb "marched," and tells how the forces marched.

10. **Conjunctive Adverbs.**— "——" is a conjunctive how, / when, / where, adverb modifying the verb "——" and tells

etc., ——. It also introduces the adverbial clause, "———," and connects it with the independent clause, "———."

Use of "when" (sentence *f*).

"When" is a conjunctive adverb modifying the verb "rose" and tells when. It also introduces the adverbial clause, "when the sun arose," and connects it with the independent clause, "The battle began."

11. **Prepositions.**— "——" is a preposition showing the relation between the $\frac{\text{noun}}{\text{pronoun}}$ "——," which it governs in the objective case, and the $\frac{}{\text{(Part of speech.)}}$ "——." It also introduces the prepositional phrase "——" and connects it with the $\frac{}{\text{(Part of speech.)}}$ "——."

Use of "to" (sentence *b*).

"To" is a preposition, showing the relation between the pronoun "me," which it governs in the objective case, and the verb "gave." It also introduces the prepositional phrase, "to me," and connects it with the verb "gave."

12. **Conjunctions.**— "——" is a conjunction connecting the two $\frac{\text{members, clauses, phrases,}}{\text{nouns, verbs, etc.,}}$ "——" and "——."

Use of "and" (sentence *g*).

"And" is a conjunction connecting the two nouns, "John" and "James."

The subordinate conjunction introduces a conjunctional clause, and connects it with the independent clause.

13. **Interjections.**— "——" is an interjection.

14. **Auxiliary Verbs.**— "——" is an auxiliary verb and helps to form the $\frac{}{\text{(Voice, mode, tense.)}}$ of the verb "——."

(*h*). "I have written the lesson."

Use of "have."

"Have" is an auxiliary verb and helps to form the present perfect tense of the verb *write*.

15. **Dependent Clauses and Phrases.**— "——" is a (Kind by structure.) phrase / clause introduced by the (Part of speech.) "——." It is an adjective / adverbial modifier of the (Part of speech.) "——" and tells ——.

Use of the clause "which was a French stronghold" (sentence *a*).

"Which was a French stronghold" is a relative clause, being introduced by the relative pronoun "which." It is an adjective modifier of the noun "Quebec," which it describes.

DERIVATION OF WORDS

By the **Derivation of Words** is meant tracing them to their original form and meaning.

A **Primitive Word** is a word in its original form; as, *good, man, see, run.*

A **Derivative Word** is a word formed from another by some change in its termination, or by the addition of some letters at the beginning or end of the word; as good*ness*, man*ly*, *fore*see, *out*run.

When the added letters make by themselves a word, the word so formed is called a **Compound Word.**

When such a compound is in common use, a hyphen is not used between the parts; as, *beehive, policeman, railroad.*

When the compound is an unusual one, or one not in general use, a hyphen should be used between the parts; as, *pear-orchard, man-of-war, good-natured.*

A letter or a syllable placed at the beginning of a word is called a **Prefix.**

A letter or a syllable placed at the end of a word is called a **Suffix.**

The prefixes are usually prepositions, and belong to three principal classes: the Saxon, the Latin, and the Greek.

I. Prefixes of Saxon Origin

A signifies *on* or *in;* as, *a*shore, that is, *on* shore.

Be signifies *about;* as, *be*stir, that is, stir *about;* also, *for* or *before;* as, *be*speak, that is, to speak *for* or *before.* It has also several other meanings.

For denies; as, bid, *for*bid (bid not to do a thing).

Fore signifies *before;* as, see, *fore*see.

Mis signifies *defect* or *error;* as, take, *mis*take.

Over denotes *superiority* or *excess;* as, done, *over*done.

Out signifies *excess* or *superiority;* as, run, *out*run.

Un before an adjective signifies *not;* as, worthy, *un*worthy; before a verb it signifies the undoing of the act expressed by the verb; as, tie, *un*tie.

Up denotes *motion upward;* as, start, *up*start; and also *subversion;* as, set, *up*set.

With signifies *against, from;* as, stand, *with*stand; draw, *with*draw.

II. Prefixes of Latin Origin

A (*ab* or *abs*) signifies *from* or *away;* as, *abstract,* to draw away.

Ad signifies *to, at;* as, *adjoin,* to join to. (*Ad* assumes different forms according to the first letter of the root to which it is prefixed; as, *a*scend, *a*ccede, *a*ffect, *a*ggrieve, etc.)

Ambi from *ambo,* both, signifies *double;* as *ambiguous* (having two meanings).

Ante signifies *before;* thus, *antediluvian,* before the flood.

Bene signifies *good, well;* as, *benevolent,* well disposed.

Bi or *bis* means *two* or *twice;* as, *bisect,* to cut into two parts.

Circum signifies *round, about;* as, *circumnavigate,* to sail round.

Cis signifies *on this side;* as, *cis-alpine,* on this side of the Alps.

Con (*com, co,* or *col*) signifies *together;* as, *convoke,* to call together.

Contra (*counter, contro*) signifies *against;* as, *contradict,* to speak against; *counteract,* to act against.

De signifies *of, from,* or *down;* as, *dethrone,* to drive from the throne.

Di (*dis, dif*) signifies *asunder;* as, *distract,* to draw asunder. It also signifies *negation* or *undoing;* as, *disobey,* not to obey.

E (*ex*) signifies *out of;* as, *elect,* to choose out of.

En signifies *in* or *into;* as *enclose,* to close in.

Equi signifies *equal;* as, *equidistant,* at an equal distance.

Extra signifies *out of, beyond;* as, *extraordinary,* beyond the ordinary.

Ig signifies *not;* as, *ignoble,* not noble.

Im signifies *not, in, on;* as, *immense,* not measurable; *imbibe,* to drink in; *impel,* to drive on.

In, before an adjective, serves as a *negative;* as active, *inactive;* before a verb *in* signifies *in* or *into;* as, *include,* to close in.

Inter signifies *between;* as, *intervene,* to come between.

Intro signifies *to, within;* as, *introduce,* to lead in.

Ir signifies *in, not;* as, *irruption,* a breaking in; *irreverent,* not reverent.

Juxta signifies *nigh to;* as, *juxtaposition,* placed near to.

Mal or *male* (from *malus,* bad) signifies *ill* or *bad;* as *malpractice,* bad practice.

Manu (from *manus,* a hand) signifies *with* or *by the hand;* as, *manuscript,* anything written by the hand.

Multi signifies *many;* as, *multiform,* having many forms.

Ob (*oc, of, o, op*) signifies *opposition;* as *obstacle,* something standing in opposition.

Omni signifies *all;* as, *omnipotent,* all powerful.

Per signifies *through* or *thoroughly;* as, *perfect,* thoroughly done, finished.

Post signifies *after;* as *postscript,* written after.

Præ or *pre,* signifies *before;* as, *prepaid,* paid before.

Pro signifies *forth* or *forwards;* as, *promote,* to move forwards.

Prœter or *preter* signifies *past* or *beyond;* as, *preternatural,* beyond the course of nature.

Re signifies *again* or *back;* as, *regain,* to gain back.

Retro signifies *backwards;* as, *retrograde,* going backwards.

Se signifies *apart* or *without;* as, *secrete,* to hide; to put aside.

Sine signifies *without;* as, *sinecure,* without care or labor.

Sub signifies *under;* as, *submarine,* under the sea.

Super signifies *above* or *over;* as, *superscribe,* to write above or over.

Trans signifies *over, from one place to another;* as, *transport,* to carry over.

III. Prefixes of Greek Origin

A or *an* signifies *privation* or *without;* as, *anonymous,* without a name.

Amphi signifies *both* or *the two;* as, *amphibious,* having two lives, or capable of living both on land and in water.

Ana signifies *through* or *up;* as, *anatomy,* which means literally, a cutting up.

Anti (*ant*) signifies *against;* as, *antichristian,* against Christianity; *antarctic,* opposite the arctic.

Apo (*ap*) signifies *from;* as, *apogee,* from the earth; *aphelion,* from the sun.

Dia signifies *through;* as, *diameter,* a measure through.

Epi signifies *upon;* as, *epidemic,* upon or among the people.

Hyper signifies *over, above;* as, *hypercritical,* overcritical, too critical.

Hypo signifies *under,* implying *concealment;* as, *hypocrite,* a person concealing his real character.

Meta signifies *change, transmutation;* as, *metamorphosis,* a change of shape.

Mono signifies *single;* as, *monosyllable,* a word of one syllable.

Para signifies *beyond, on one side;* as, *paradox,* an opinion beyond or contrary to the general opinion.

Peri signifies *round* or *about;* as, *perimeter,* a measure round.

Poly signifies *many;* as, *polysyllable,* a word of many syllables.

Semi (*demi, hemi*) signifies *half;* as, *semicircle,* half of a circle; *hemisphere,* half of a sphere.

Syn (*sy, syl, sym*) signifies *with, together;* as, *sympathy,* feeling with.

Name other words of Greek origin having these prefixes, and give the meaning of the prefix and the word.

IV. Suffixes

1. Suffixes denoting the *agent* or *doer:*

ant, as in	assist*ant*	*ian,* as in	physic*ian*
ar,	begg*ar*	*ier,*	cloth*ier*
ard,	dot*ard*	*ist,*	conform*ist*
ary,	adversa*ry*	*ive,*	operat*ive.*
eer,	charioteer	*or,*	inspect*or*
ent,	adher*ent*	*ster,*	pun*ster*
er,	bak*er*	*yer,*	saw*yer*

2. Suffixes denoting the *person acted upon:*

ate, as in	potent*ate*	*ite,* as in	favor*ite*
ee,	assign*ee*		

3. Suffixes denoting *being* or *state of being:*

acy, as in	pir*acy*	*ity,* as in	eter*nity*
age,	bond*age*	*ment,*	achieve*ment*
ance,	repent*ance*	*mony,*	acri*mony*
ancy,	flagr*ancy*	*ness,*	acute*ness*
ence,	adher*ence*	*ry,*	rival*ry*
ency,	emerg*ency*	*ship,*	friend*ship*
ery,	mast*ery*	*th,*	dep*th*
hood,	boy*hood*	*tude,*	apt*itude*
ice,	serv*ice*	*ty*	loyal*ty*
ion,	exhaust*ion*	*ure,*	disclos*ure*
ism,	despot*ism*		

4. Suffixes denoting *jurisdiction:*

dom, as in	king*dom*	*ship* as in	lords*hip*
ric,	bishop*ric*		

5. Suffixes denoting *diminution:*

cle, as in	corpus*cle*	*let,* as in	stream*let*
en,	maid*en*	*ling,*	duck*ling*
kin,	lamb*kin*	*ock,*	hill*ock*
icle,	ic*icle*	*ule,*	glob*ule.*

6. Suffixes denoting *of* or *pertaining to:*

ac, as in	elegi*ac*	*ene,* as in	terr*ene*
al,	autumn*al*	*ic,*	angel*ic*
an,	republic*an*	*ical,*	canon*ical*
ar,	consul*ar*	*ile,*	infant*ile*
ary,	moment*ary*	*ine,*	adamant*ine*
en,	wood*en*	*ory,*	expiat*ory*

7. Suffixes denoting *full of:*

ate, as in	affection*ate*	*ous,* as in	hazard*ous*
ful,	hope*ful*	*some,*	glad*some*
ose,	verb*ose*	*y,*	pith*y*

8. Suffixes denoting *capacity:*

able, as in	profit*able*	*ile,* as in	doc*ile*
ible,	contempt*ible*	*ive,*	communicat*ive*

9. Suffixes denoting *to make:*

ate, as in	alien*ate*	*ish,* as in	publ*ish*
en,	bright*en*	*ize*	legal*ize*
fy,	just*ify*	*se,*	cleans*e*
ise,	critic*ise*		

10. *Miscellaneous* suffixes:

ern	signifies	*in* or *toward,* as in	north*ern*
like	"	*likeness,*	saint*like*
ly	"	*likeness,*	maiden*ly*
ish	"	*small degree of anything,*	black*ish*
less	"	*negation,*	art*less*
ward	"	*in the direction of,*	home*ward*

GENERAL EXERCISE

Take an extract of twenty or more lines and name the compound word. Name the derivative words; from what derived? give suffix and prefix. Name words containing silent letters. Diphthongs. Triphthongs. Name words which have accented syllables.

THIRD PART

SYNTAX, ANALYSIS, AND SYNTHESIS

Syntax, Analysis, and Synthesis treat of Sentences.

Syntax treats of putting words together into sentences in accordance with best usage.

Analysis treats of the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

Synthesis treats of the construction of a sentence from its parts.

I. SYNTAX

Syntax treats of the agreement of words, the government of words, and the proper position of words in a sentence.

For convenience these matters are arranged under rules.

Rule I

The Subject of a Verb Must Be in the Nominative Case.

NOTES

1. The subject of a verb may be: (1) A noun; as *John* wrote. (2) A pronoun; as, *She* is happy. (3) An infinitive or an infinitive phrase; as, *To study* seemed his greatest desire. *To see the sun* is pleasant. (4) A parti-

cipial noun or a participial phrase; as, *Running* is a good exercise. *Reading useful books* promotes knowledge. (5) A noun clause; as, *Thou shalt not kill* is the sixth commandment. In all these instances the subjects are used as nouns.

2. The subject of a verb is usually placed before the verb.

3. Rule I. is violated by using the subject of the verb in any other case than the nominative.

Explanation.—The subject of the verb is that of which the assertion is made. "The book is in the desk." "John and I went home." Now, the subject of the verb, that of which anything is asserted, must be in the nominative case. It would be contrary to the rule, therefore, to say, "John and *me* went home," because "me," one of the subjects, is not in the nominative case.

4. Complex names, such as George Washington, Charles Henry Grant, etc., should be taken together in parsing, as if they were one word. Thus, "Charles Henry Grant," a complex name, is a proper noun.

5. A noun or pronoun addressed, and not the subject of any verb, is in the **Nominative Case Independent**; as, "*Father*, forgive them."

6. A noun or a pronoun put before a participle in an absolute phrase, and not being the subject of any verb, is in the **Nominative Case Absolute**; as, "My *father* dying, I was left an orphan."

7. The noun or pronoun in absolute phrases is often omitted. Thus, in the sentence, "Generally speaking, labor is not without its reward," the nominative absolute of *speaking* is omitted.

8. The rule for the construction of absolute phrases is violated by putting the subject of the participle in any other case than the nominative. "*Him* dying, I was left an orphan," should be, "*He* dying, I was left an orphan." As the nominative and objective cases of nouns are alike, no false syntax can occur under this rule except in pronouns.

9. Every nominative case, except the case independent, the case absolute, the case of apposition, and the predicate nominative, should be the subject of some verb expressed or understood.

10. A noun and its pronoun should not be used as subjects of the same verb; as, "The day, *it* is clear," should be, "The day is clear."

Exercise I

Select the correct word in *italic* in the following sentences and give your reasons:

1. *She* (*her*) was sent to the store.
2. *They* (*them*) went sailing on the bay.
3. *He* (*him*) and I could not agree.
4. They and *we* (*us*) are going to the park.
5. You and *them* (*they*) had a long dispute.
6. Thomas and *me* (*I*) learned the lesson together.
7. *They* (*them*) descending, the ladder fell.
8. *He* (*him*) being dead, the hostility ceased.
9. The trooper was defeated because *he* (*him*) was injured.
10. Grant, *who* (*whom*) was commander, issued the order.

Exercise II

Insert a proper pronoun in each of the following sentences:

1. —— wrote the letter.
2. The man —— spoke, was hurt.
3. Mary and —— have arranged to go to the country.
4. —— saw the accident?
5. They and —— were dismissed early.
6. —— having been hurt, the pleasure ceased.
7. —— or I must go down town.
8. —— and I have studied the lesson.
9. The engineer, —— saw the danger, blew the whistle.
10. He and —— are of the same age.

Exercise III

Name the predicate verb in each of the following sentences. Parse the subject in each sentence. Give the use of each word in the nominative case:

1. Virtue ennobles the mind, vice debases it.
2. London is on the Thames River.
3. A good conscience fears nothing.
4. To see the sun is pleasant.
5. Swimming is good exercise.
6. John, see that the work is finished before noon.
7. Napoleon being banished, peace was restored to Europe.
8. Ferdinand Magellan, who was a Portuguese, discovered the strait that bears his name.
9. Who saw the accident?
10. If the advice is good, take it.

Rule II

A Verb Agrees with its Subject in Number and Person.

NOTES

1. Rule II. is violated by using the verb in any other number or person than its subject; thus, "They *was* present," should be, "They *were* present."

2. In the Indicative, Subjunctive, and Potential modes every verb should have a subject expressed, except where two or more verbs are connected in the same construction.

3. An Infinitive has no subject.

4. In the Imperative Mode the subject of the verb is usually omitted, *thou* or *you* being understood.

5. When the subject of the verb is an infinitive or a part of a sentence, the verb should be singular; as, "To skate *is* healthful amusement." "'Thou shalt not kill' *is* a divine command." But if there are two or more infinitives or clauses, making distinct subjects, then

the verb should be plural; as, "To skate and to play cricket *are* healthful amusements," "'Thou shalt not kill' and 'Thou shalt not steal' *are* divine commands."

6. When a verb has for its subject a collective noun, the verb should be singular if the idea expressed by the subject is singular, that is, if the assertion is made of the collection as one thing; as, "The class *is* large." But if the idea expressed by the subject is plural, that is, if the assertion is made of the individuals composing the collection, the verb should be plural; as, "The multitude *pursue* pleasure as their chief good."

7. Some nouns, which are not considered nouns of multitude, are frequently used in the singular form, with a plural meaning; as, "Ten *sail* of the line were seen off the coast." In such cases the verb should be plural.

8. "It," used indefinitely before a verb which has a nominative case after it, is the subject of that verb, and the verb agrees with it, and not with the noun or pronoun following; thus, "It *is* I," not "It *am* I"; "It *is* they," not "It *are* they."

9. Two or more subjects, connected by *and*, expressed or understood, require a verb in the plural; as, "Socrates and Plato *were* wise." The verb in such cases should be plural because the assertion is made of all the subjects. For the same reason, all the nouns and pronouns representing such subjects should be plural; as, "Filthiness and bad food are *sources* of disease," not "a *source* of disease."

10. Two or more subjects, connected by *and*, if used to express only one person or thing, require a verb in the singular; as, "That eminent statesman and orator *is* dead."

11. When singular subjects, though connected by *and*, belong to separate propositions, they have a singular verb; as, "The wine, and not the bottle, *was* used." Subjects connected by *and* belong to separate propositions when accompanied by *each*, *every*, *no*, *not*, or some other disuniting word; as, "*Every* house, *every* grove was burnt."

"Good order, and *not* mean savings, produces profits." In the former sentence the meaning is, "Every house was burnt, every grove was burnt." In the latter, "Good order produces profits and mean savings do not."

12. Two or more subjects in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular; as, "Ignorance or prejudice *has* caused the mistake." The verb in such cases should be singular because the assertion is true of only one of the subjects. For the same reason, all the nouns or pronouns representing such subjects should be singular.

13. If any one of several subjects connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the verb must be plural; as, "Either he or they *were* mistaken."

14. When a verb has subjects of different persons, connected by *and*, the verb agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third; as, "He and I *shared* the peach between us." "Shared" should be parsed as in the first person.

15. When a verb has subjects of different persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees in person with the subject nearest to it; as, "Either thou or I *am* mistaken," not "Either thou or I *art* mistaken."

Exercise I

Select the proper word in *italic* in the following sentences and give your reasons:

1. A soft answer *turn* (*turns*) away wrath.
2. Our most sanguine prospects *have* (*has*) often been blasted.
3. Many means *was* (*were*) employed, but no one means *was* (*were*) found efficient.
4. To encourage virtuous actions *is* (*are*) praiseworthy.
5. To love God and keep his commandments *is* (*are*) the whole duty of man.
6. *Were* (*was*) you there?
7. A committee *was* (*were*) appointed to investigate.
8. John and Mary *was* (*were*) at our house last week.

9. Neither John nor Mary *was* (*were*) at our house last week.
10. Cavalry *is* (*are*) not furnished with knapsacks.
11. Congress *have* (*has*) adjourned.
12. My brother with two friends *have* (*has*) arrived.
13. Nothing but the flag and flagstaff *was* (*were*) visible.
14. Every city, town, and village *were* (*was*) depopulated.
15. To read or to write *was* (*were*) equally difficult to him.
16. Either he or I *is* (*am*) willing to go.
17. You and I *are* (*am*) going.
18. Neither the secretaries nor the president *was* (*were*) to be blamed.
19. On his tomb is this inscription: "Here *lie* (*lies*) a statesman and orator."
20. The House *was* (*were*) called to order.

Exercise II

Give the use of each predicate verb in the following sentences. Parse the subject of each sentence. In what number and person is each verb? Give your reasons:

1. The smiles of the mob are easily gained.
2. The time and the place for the conference were agreed upon.
3. A strong argument and not a loud voice brings conviction.
4. To eat with unwashed hands and to drink wine are forbidden by the Koran.
5. Neither the boy nor the girl succeeded in passing the examination.
6. Our parlor and sitting-room was the front room in the second story.
7. Neither William nor you are to go to the game.
8. The boat and the oars were lost.
9. Neither John nor I have studied to-day.
10. Some people are very busy and yet do very little.

Rule III

A Transitive Verb, in the Active Voice, Requires an Object in the Objective Case.

NOTES

1. The noun or pronoun in the objective case is said to be *governed* by the verb.

2. The object of the verb may be: (1) A noun; as, John wrote a *letter*. (2) A pronoun; as, We saw *him*. (3) An infinitive or an infinitive phrase; as, He tried *to win* the prize. Boys love *to play ball*. (4) A participial noun or a participial phrase; as, We should avoid *talking foolishly*. (5) A noun clause; as, God said, "*Let there be light.*" In all these instances the objectives are used as nouns.

3. The object of a verb is usually placed after the verb.

4. The object of a transitive verb, whether noun, pronoun, or part of a sentence, is called a modifier or adjunct of the predicate. It is sometimes called the *complement* or *object complement* of the verb.

5. Rule III. is violated in four ways, namely: (1) By using the object of the verb in any other case than the objective; as, "She asked him and *I* to do it," should be, "She asked him and *me* to do it." (2) By using a transitive verb in the active voice without an object; as, "He ingratiates with people," should be, "He ingratiates *himself* with people." (3) By inserting a preposition between the verb and its object; as, "I shall premise with a few observations," should be, "I shall premise a few observations." (4) By using an objective with a verb that is not transitive; as, "I lie me down to sleep," should be, "I lie down to sleep."

5. A participle of a transitive verb in the active voice requires an object in the objective case; as, "The boy, having eaten unripe *fruit*, became sick."

7. The relative pronoun, when in the objective case, usually precedes the verb by which it is governed; as,

"The book *which* you see is mine." Here, "which" is the object of the verb "see," and is placed before it.

8. The verb *to teach* and some few others retain the object in the objective case, even in the passive voice.

In explaining this construction, which is somewhat peculiar in English, though common in Latin, it is necessary to notice the distinction between the direct and the indirect object of a verb. "He gives the book to me." "Book" is the direct object, "me" is the indirect object. In changing the expression to the passive, the *direct* object becomes the subject; as, "The book is given to me." Now, in the case of the verb "to teach" and some few others, in changing to the passive, the direct object remains in the objective, and the *indirect* object becomes the subject; thus, Active: "He taught grammar to the pupils." In changing this expression to the Passive, the direct object, "grammar," remains in the objective, but the indirect object, "pupils," becomes the subject; thus, Passive: "The pupils were taught grammar." The following are additional examples of this construction: "I was asked a question," "I was denied the privilege," "I was offered a place in the custom-house."

Exercise I

Select the proper word in *italic* in the following sentences, and give your reasons; parse each subject and predicate:

1. I sent *he* (*him*) to the store.
2. *Who* (*whom*) did you send?
3. I *lie* (*lay*) me down to sleep.
4. We know *he* (*him*) and *they* (*them*).
5. *Sit* (*set*) the pitcher on the table.
6. *Who* (*whom*) should I see the other day, but my cousin.
7. *He* (*him*) who committed the offence, thou shouldst punish, not *I* (*me*) who am innocent.
8. *She* (*her*) that is idle, reprove sharply.

Exercise II

Why should the word in *italic* be omitted in each of the following sentences?

1. I shall premise (*with*) a few observations.
2. The child chased (*after*) the butterfly.

Exercise III

(*a*) Use each of the following properly in a sentence: *whom, set, having laid, him, them.*

(*b*) Give the use of each predicate verb in the following. Parse each noun and each pronoun:

1. Devotion strengthens virtue.
2. Application in early life will give ease in old age.
3. The waters of the Mississippi flow into the Gulf of Mexico.
4. Be careful whom you trust.
5. "Chiefs, sages, heroes, bards and seers,
   That live in story and in song,
   Time, for the last two thousand years,
   Has raised, and shown, and swept along."



Rule IV

A Preposition Requires an Object in the Objective Case.

NOTES

1. The noun or pronoun in the objective case after a preposition is said to be *governed* by the preposition.

2. The preposition and the word governed by it is called a prepositional phrase. As such it may be either adverbial or adjective in character, and may modify a verb, an adverb, an adjective, or a noun.

3. A preposition is usually placed before the word which it governs; as, "He came *to* town."

4. *That,* when used as a relative pronoun, always precedes the preposition by which it is governed; as,

"Every book *that* you have referred *to* is mine." Here "that" is governed by the preposition "to," and precedes it. If we were to use "which" here instead of "that," the arrangement would be different; thus, "Every book to *which* you have referred is mine."

5. *Whom* and *which* sometimes precede the preposition; as, "The person *whom* I travelled *with*." This mode of construction is considered inelegant, especially where the preposition is separated some distance from the word which it governs. The phrase, "The person whom I travelled with," should read, "The person with whom I travelled."

6. The preposition and the word governed by it should be placed as near as possible to the preceding word to which they relate; as, "He was reading in a low voice when I entered." This is better than saying, "He was reading, when I entered, in a low voice." The words "in a low voice" relate to the act of "reading," and should not unnecessarily be separated from it.

7. Sometimes in law papers, and other documents of a formal nature, two prepositions govern jointly the same word; as, "He is related *to*, and governed *by*, the same person." Such constructions in other kinds of writing should be avoided. The sentence should read: "He is related to the same person and is governed by him."

8. It is an objectionable mode of construction to have the same word governed jointly by a transitive verb and a preposition; as, "He was warned *of*, and urged to *avoid*, the danger." It should be, "He was warned of the danger and urged to avoid it.

9. When a preposition is followed by an adjective without a noun, supply the noun, and parse the preposition accordingly; thus, "Keep to the right," means, "Keep to the right side."

10. The preposition is frequently omitted, particularly after verbs of *giving* and *procuring;* after adjectives of *likeness* or *nearness;* and before nouns denoting *time, place, price, measure,* etc. When it is practicable to supply

the ellipsis, the noun or pronoun is parsed as in the objective, governed by the preposition thus supplied; thus, "Give me a book." "Get me an apple." "Like his father." "Books worth a dollar," meaning, "Give *to* me a book." "Get *for* me an apple." "Like *to* his father." "Books *to the* worth *of* a dollar." But when no such preposition can be supplied, we say the noun is in the objective, expressing *time*, *place*, *price*, *measure*, etc., without any governing word.

11. Formerly, the preposition *for* was used before the infinitive; as, "What went ye out *for* to see?" This is not allowable now. The sentence should read, "What went ye out to see?"

12. Sometimes one preposition immediately precedes another; as, "*From before* the altar." In such cases the two prepositions should be considered as one, as in the case of compound prepositions, such as *upon*, *within*, etc.

13. Sometimes a preposition precedes an adverb; as, *at once*, *for ever*. In such cases the two words should be taken together, and called an adverb or an adverbial phrase.

14. *At* and *to*. *At* is used after a verb of rest; as, "He resides at Madrid." *To* is used after a verb of motion; as, "He went to Madrid."

15. *Between* and *among*. *Between* refers to two objects, *among* to more than two; as, "There is no difference of opinion between the President and the Vice-President (two), although there is among the members of the Cabinet (more than two)."

16. The following list contains a few of the most common instances of appropriate prepositions:

Absent *from*.	Adapt *to*.
Access *to*.	Affection *for*.
Accord *to* (transitive).	Agent charged *with* a thing.
Accord *with* (intransitive).	Thing charged *on* an agent.
Accused *of*.	Agree *to* a thing.
Acquit *of*.	Agree *with* a person.

Alienate *from*.
Alliance *with*.
Attribute *of* (noun).
Attribute *to* (verb).
Averse *to* (adjective).
Avert *from* (verb).
Bestow *upon*.
Betray *into* a thing.
Betray *to* a person.
Call *at* a house.
Call *for* a thing.
Call *on* a person.
Compare *to* (for illustration).
Compare *with* (for quality).
Comply *with*.
Confide *in* (intransitive).
Confide *to* (transitive).
Consonant *with*.
Copy *after* a parent.
Copy *from* nature.
Correspond *to* a thing.
Correspond *with* a person.
Defend others *from*.
Defend ourselves *against*.
Depend *upon*.
Die *by* a sword.
Die *of* a disease.
Differ *from* a person in character.
Differ *with* him in opinion.
Different *from*.
Diminished *from* (a verb).
Diminution *of* (a noun).
Dissent *from*.
Made *of*.
Martyr *for*.
Need *of*.
Reconcile a person *to*.
Reconcile a thing *with*.
Taste *for* (capacity for enjoying).
Taste *of* (actual enjoyment).
True *to*.

Exercise I

Select the proper word in *italic* in the following sentences, and give your reasons. Parse each preposition in sentences 1 to 5. Give the use of each preposition in sentences 6 to 10.

1. James wrote a letter, saying, "I have need *of* (*for*) a dictionary."

2. He corresponds *with* (*to*) his brother. His writing corresponds *with* (*to*) mine.

3. Mary called *on* (*for*) her sister.

4. The physician thought he would die *of* (*by*) the fever, but he died *of* (*by*) the sword.

5. Confide *to* (*in*) real friends only; confide nothing *to* (*in*) him who has once deceived you.

6. Congress consists *in* (*of*) a Senate and House of Representatives.

7. No strife should arise *between* (*among*) a brother and a sister.

8. The bird flew *in* (*into*) the barn.

9. The agent received the goods *of* (*from*) his employer.

10. Between you and *I* (*me*), he has no scholarship of which to boast.

11. From *who* (*whom*) did you receive that letter?

12. *Among* (*between*) the many religious sects he found one suited to his notions of religion.

13. The Indian differs *with* (*from*) the Caucasian in color.

14. The captain *who* (*whom*) all loved, was saved.

15. I took the book *off of* (*from*) him.

Exercise II

Use each of the following prepositions correctly in sentences:

Into, call *at*, copy *after*, reconciled *with*, differ *from*, correspond *to*, *upon*, *in*, *among*.

Exercise III

Change the following sentences so that the meaning will be expressed clearly:

1. His health, he little thought of.

2. Wanted, a room for two gentlemen about thirty feet long and twenty feet broad.

3. Lost, near City Hall, an umbrella belonging to a gentleman with a broken rib and a bone handle.

4. He was talking, while his classmates were quietly studying, in a loud voice, when the teacher entered, and spoke to him, with noiseless steps.

5. He approved of and voted for the measure.

6. He dwelt upon and strongly urged your claims.

7. Wanted, a young man to take care of some horses of a religious turn of mind.

Rule V

A Noun or a Pronoun in the Possessive Case is Dependent Upon the Noun Signifying the Thing Possessed.

NOTES

1. The noun or pronoun in the possessive is said to be *governed* by the noun signifying the thing possessed.

2. The possessive case is not the only way in which the idea of possession may be expressed. A very common mode of expressing this idea is by using the preposition *of*. Thus, "The house of my father" and "My father's house" express equally the idea of possession. In substituting one of these modes of expression for the other, care should be taken to see that the two expressions have the same meaning. In the expression, "The House of Representatives," "of" does not convey the idea of *possession*, but of *composition*. It means the House of Assembly composed of Representatives.

3. The noun governing the possessive case is often omitted; as, "I bought this slate at the bookseller's, meaning, "at the bookseller's store." In such cases supply the omission, and parse according to the general rule.

4. In consequence of ellipsis, there is sometimes an appearance of a double possessive; as, "This is a speech of the king's [speeches]." Here "of" does not denote possession. The meaning is, "This speech is *one of* the king's speeches." In all such instances the preposition governs the noun understood, and the noun understood governs the possessive.

5. The two modes of expression, "A picture of the king" and "A picture of the king's," never mean the same thing. The noun understood in the latter case is always plural, and the idea is always that of possession. The phrase, "A picture of the king's," implies that this is one of a number of pictures, and that they belong to

the king. But the phrase, "A picture of the king," means a portrait of him; no intimation is given of a plurality of pictures and no idea of possession is implied.

6. In complex names and in complex titles the sign of the possessive is placed only at the end, and the whole complex name, or title, is parsed as one word. Thus, "George Washington's farewell address," not "George's Washington's."

7. A complex title sometimes consists of several words, some of which may be different parts of speech, and may have an independent construction of their own; thus, "The captain of the guard's horse was slain." In parsing such a sentence, "of the guard" should be parsed first, each word separately, "guard" being in the objective. Then, "captain of the guard's" should be parsed as one complex title, in the possessive case, governed by "horse." The *'s* belongs not to "guard," but to the whole expression. These complex titles are sometimes written with a hyphen, as, "commander-in-chief."

8. Where complex titles are used, the idea of possession may be conveyed by using "of," "belonging to," or something similar. This mode of expression in such cases is generally to be preferred to the use of *'s*. Thus, "The horse belonging to the captain of the guard was slain."

9. When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected, expressing *joint* possession, the sign of the possessive should be placed after the last noun only; as, "The king and queen's marriage." "King" here is to be parsed as the possessive, with the sign of the possessive omitted. If, however, several words intervene between the nouns so connected, the sign of the possessive should be placed after each noun; as, "It was my father's and also my mother's wish."

10. When two or more nouns in the possessive are connected, expressing *separate* possession, the sign of the possessive should be placed after each of the nouns; as, "Washington's and Cornwallis's troops approached each other."

11. When two nouns, or a noun and a pronoun, are in apposition, the sign of the possessive is often omitted after one of the words; as, "For David thy father's sake." Here "David" is parsed as in the possessive, the sign of the possessive being omitted. "Here rests *his* head, a *youth* to fortune and to fame unknown." "Youth" here is in the possessive, the sign of the possessive being omitted, and is in apposition with "his." The meaning is, "The head of him, a youth," etc.

12. Care should be taken not to separate the possessive from the governing word by inserting explanatory clauses; as, "She extolled the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding." In such cases the idea of possession should be expressed by "of" or in some similar way. Thus, "She extolled the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

13. Certain compound pronouns in the possessive case are sometimes separated; as, "Into *whose* house *soever* you enter." This, however, is to be avoided.

14. The possessive is sometimes governed by a participle used as a noun; as, "The cause of John's forgetting the lesson was his anxiety about the excursion." Here "John's" is in the possessive case, governed by the participle "forgetting" used as a noun. It would not be correct to put "John" in the objective case governed by "of." "Of" here governs "forgetting," not "John." "The cause of *John* forgetting the lesson," should be, "The cause of *John's* forgetting the lesson." "The cause of *him* not doing it," should be, "The cause of *his* not doing it."

Exercise I

In the following sentences denote possession by means of the possessive case. Quote the rule in each case:

1. The manners of a man often make his fortune.
2. The heart of Asa was perfect before the Lord.
3. The beauty of Helen caused the destruction of Troy.
4. The day of the Lord will come as a thief in the night.

5. The letter of the Archbishop of Baltimore was published in the daily papers.

6. The bookcase belonging to Mary and John is filled with books.

7. If he learn any trade, it should be that of his father.

8. The opinion of the Archbishop of Canterbury was preferred to that of the Archbishop of York.

9. The store belonging to Mr. Jones was burned.

10. The books belonging jointly to Frank and Howard were sold.

11. The house of Mr. Brown, the carpenter, was sold.

12. It is the duty of the sergeant-at-arms to execute the orders of the Speaker of the House of Representatives.

13. The marriage of father and mother occurred thirty years ago.

14. The reign of William and Mary was one of the most distinguished in English history.

Exercise II

State the difference in meaning between sentences 1 and 2, and give the rule for the use of the possessive in each sentence. Sentences 3 and 4; 5 and 6; 7 and 8; 9 and 10; 11 and 12.

Parse each word in the possessive case in sentences 1 to 8.

Give the use of each word in the possessive case in sentences 9 to 14.

1. Frank's and William's marbles were lost.
2. Frank and William's marbles were lost.
3. This is a picture of Mary.
4. This is a picture of Mary's.
5. Scott's and Butler's stores were burned.
6. Scott and Butler's stores were burned.
7. A sketch of Mary was presented to the academy.
8. One of Mary's sketches was presented to the academy.

9. Tell me a story of Jackson.
10. Tell me a story of Jackson's.

11. The reception of the mayor was a notable event.
12. The reception of the mayor's was a notable event.

13. The captain and lieutenant's horses were stolen.
14. The captain's and lieutenant's horses were stolen.

Rule VI

A Noun or a Pronoun in Apposition with Another Agrees with It in Case.

NOTES

1. A word is said to be in apposition with another when it is used to explain the other or when it is repeated for emphasis; as, "Smith, the *bookseller*, lives in that house." "Cisterns, broken *cisterns*, that can hold no water." "We, the *people* of the United States."

2. The words in apposition may be in any case—nominative, possessive, or objective.

3. When a word is in apposition with another in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive is sometimes omitted.

"This is the wandering wood, this Error's den,
A *monster* vile, whom God and man do hate."

"Monster" here is in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive being omitted, and is in apposition with "Error's."

4. A noun may be used in apposition with a whole sentence; as, "He promptly acceded to my request, an *act* which redounds greatly to his honor." "Act" is here nominative, in apposition with the whole of the preceding sentence.

5. When several words form one proper name, as, "Thomas Jefferson," these words are in apposition, but they should be parsed together as one complex noun.

In forming the plural number or the possessive case of such complex names the sign should be put only at the end; as, "The country has not had two Thomas Jeffersons"; "Thomas Jefferson's works."

6. When a proper name has a title prefixed; as, "General Greene," "Dr. Rush," "Mr. Stockton," the words are in apposition, but they should be parsed together as one complex noun. In forming the plural of such complex names, if, besides the article, there is a numeral adjective prefixed, the *last* word only should be plural; as, "The two Mr. *Stocktons*." But if there is no numeral prefixed, the *title* only should be plural; as, "The *Messrs.* Stockton," "The *Misses* Stockton."

7. One of the most frequent instances of apposition is where the proper noun of an object is appended to its common name; as, "The river Delaware," "The poet Tennyson," "The steamboat Philadelphia." It is a peculiarity of the English language that the proper names of *places*, when so appended, are not in apposition, but are put in the objective and governed by "of"; as, "The city *of* Philadelphia."

8. The phrases, "They love one another," "They love each other," etc., afford instances of apposition that very frequently occur. In the first of these examples, "one" is in the nominative, and is in apposition with "they"; "another" is in the objective, governed by "love." The meaning is, "One loves another."

Exercise I

Give the case of each word in apposition and explain fully why it is in that case:

1. This is his, John's, book.
2. Alexander, the coppersmith, did me great harm.
3. He is Mr. Wilson, the painter.
4. The reward was given to Frank, my brother.
5. Harrisburg, the capital of Pennsylvania, is on the Susquehanna River.
6. Webster, the orator and statesman, was present.

Exercise II

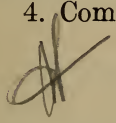
Parse each noun in the following:

1. He was playing ball, an amusement of which boys are very fond.
2. We, Americans, love our country.
3. John, are you going to Mr. Brown's, the grocer's?
4. The Speaker of the House, Mr. Cannon, was in the city.

Exercise III

Give the use of each noun in apposition in the following sentences. Give the use of each verb:

1. Washington, the capital of the United States, is on the Potomac River.
2. He was seen to enter Miss Watson's, the milliner's.
3. They destroyed the vessel and returned without losing a man, an exploit which was highly creditable.
4. Come, let us, thee and me, make a covenant.



Rule VII

The Verb "To Be" Has the Same Case After It as Before It.

NOTES

1. The noun or pronoun after the verb *to be* is not in apposition with the noun or pronoun before it, but is a part of the predicate; as, "James is *commander* of the troops." "Commander" should be parsed as a predicate nominative after the verb *is*, and forming a part of the predicate. As a part of the predicate, the words so used after the verb *to be* are considered adjuncts or modifiers of the predicate.

2. This rule applies also to the verb *become* and to several other intransitive verbs, and also to the passive voice of some transitive verbs, such as *to be named, to be called,* etc.

3. The verb *to be* as an infinitive used as a noun may

have a noun or a pronoun after it without any other noun before it; as, "To be a good *man* is not so easy a thing as many people imagine." Here "man" should be parsed as used indefinitely after the verb *to be*, without saying what its case is. The infinitives of many other intransitive verbs and the passive infinitives of some transitive verbs may also have a noun or a pronoun after them used indefinitely; as, "To live a consistent *Christian* is not easy," "To be called a *Roman* was counted a great honor."

4. The verb *to be* may have for its complement a predicate nominative or a predicate adjective; as, "The United States is a great *country*." "Snow is *white*." "Country" is a predicate nominative; "white" is a predicate adjective.

Exercise I

In the following sentences select the proper word in *italic* and give your reasons:

1. Is it *me* (*I*).
2. These are *they* (*them*) that were on the table.
3. It was *he* (*him*) that wrote the note.
4. He claimed that it was *we* (*us*) that broke the windows.
5. That it was *I* (*me*) who deserved the prize was admitted by all.
6. *Who* (*whom*) do you think me to be?
7. Is it *him* (*he*)?

Exercise II

Parse each predicate nominative in the following:

1. Thomson, the author of "The Seasons," is a delightful poet.
2. This is Arnold's grave, that vile traitor who sold his country for money.
3. Wine has been his ruin.
4. When I reign king, thou shalt be my slave.
5. Monroe was elected President.

Exercise III

Give the use of each predicate complement in the following sentences:

1. He is a wicked person.
2. Education, the great civilizer, is the best safeguard of that blood-bought blessing, liberty.
3. Desoto discovered the Mississippi.
4. It is your general knowledge of the subject that will help you.
5. That sailor was the hero of that celebrated battle.
6. It is said that money is the root of all evil.

Rule VIII

A Pronoun Agrees with the Noun or the Pronoun for which it Stands in Gender, Number, and Person.

NOTES

1. When a pronoun stands for a collective noun, the pronoun should be singular if the idea expressed by the noun is singular, and should be in the neuter gender; as, "The class is too large; *it* must be divided." But if the idea expressed by the noun is plural, the pronoun should be plural; as, "Send the multitude away that *they* may buy themselves bread."

2. When a pronoun stands for two or more words connected by *and*, the pronoun should be plural. Thus, "William and Mary were both there; I saw *them*." "He and Mary were both there; I saw *them*." "He and she were both there; I saw *them*."

3. When a pronoun stands for two or more words connected by *and*, but used to express only one subject, the pronoun should be singular. Thus, "He knew his Lord and Saviour, and loved *Him*."

4. When a pronoun stands for two or more words in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun should be singular. Thus, "Either play or work is injurious if

it is carried to excess." If one of the words connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the pronoun should be plural; as, "Neither the captain nor the men knew of *their* danger."

5. When a pronoun stands for two or more words connected by *and*, but of different persons, the pronoun agrees with the first person rather than with the second, and with the second rather than with the third. Thus, "William and I had *our* skates with *us*." "Our" and "us" are plural, because they stand for two subjects, "William" and "I." But one of these subjects, "William," being in the third person, and the other, "I," being in the first person, the pronoun which stands for both must be in the first person.

6. When a pronoun stands for two or more words connected by *and*, but of different genders, the gender of the pronoun is indeterminate, and must be omitted in parsing; as, "I saw the man and his portrait side by side, and I could hardly tell *them* apart, so great was the likeness." Here "them" stands for "man" (masc.) and "portrait" (neuter); the gender of "them," therefore, cannot be determined.

7. Words of different genders or persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, cannot be correctly represented by a single pronoun. Thus, "Mary or William has lost —— book." We cannot supply the blank with *her*, *his*, or *their*. Again, "He or I have lost —— book." We cannot supply the blank with *his*, *my*, *their*, or *our*.

8. A pronoun may stand for an infinitive; as, "To contradict may be rude, but *it* is not criminal." A pronoun may stand also for a sentence or a part of a sentence; as, "He is very witty, but unfortunately he is aware of *it*." The pronoun in such cases should be in the neuter gender, singular number, and third person. But if there are two or more infinitives, sentences, or parts of sentences, making distinct subjects, then the pronoun should be plural; as, "To be temperate and to use exercise in the open air are good preservatives of health, but *they* are not infallible."

9. The pronoun *it* is sometimes used indefinitely, that is, without standing for any particular noun. Thus, "Come and trip *it* as you go," "*It* rains," "*It* was he that did it."

10. The gender of a noun is sometimes changed by personification. In such instances a similar change occurs in the gender of the pronoun; as, "The ship had lost *her* anchor."

11. *We* frequently and *you* generally are used to represent the singular. It is improper in such cases to change the construction during the progress of a sentence; as, "*You* were true to me in the day of trouble, and *thy* kindness I can never forget." It should be either *thou* and *thy*, or *you* and *your*.

12. *Who* is used in referring to persons; *which* is used in referring to inferior animals, to things without life, to infants, to collective nouns expressing a singular idea, and to persons in asking questions where the particular individual is inquired for. *Which* was formerly applied to persons as well as things; as, "Our Father, *which* art in heaven."

13. *That* is used instead of *who* or *which* in the following cases:

(*a*) After *two antecedents*, one requiring *who* and the other requiring *which;* as, "The *man* and the *house that* we saw yesterday."

(*b*) After the *superlative;* as, "It is the *best* book *that* can be got."

(*c*) After *same;* as, "He is the *same* kind-hearted man *that* he used to be."

(*d*) After *all*, or any similar antecedent expressing a general meaning, limited by the following verb; as, "*All that* heard me can testify."

(*e*) After *who*, used interrogatively; as, "*Who, that* has seen anything of human nature, can believe it?"

(*f*) After *it*, used indefinitely; as, "*It* was he *that* did it."

14. When the relative has two antecedents of different

persons, one before and the other after the verb *to be*, the relative agrees in person with the nearer; as, "I am the man *who* commands you." Where a different meaning is intended, the relative should be placed nearer the first antecedent; as, "I, *who* command you, am the man."

15. The relative should be placed near its antecedent to prevent ambiguity; thus, "The *boy* beat his friend, *whom* everybody believed incapable of doing mischief," should be, "The *boy*, *whom* everybody believed incapable of doing mischief, beat his friend."

16. The relative is sometimes omitted; as, "The letter you wrote me on Saturday, came duly to hand," meaning, "The letter which you wrote me."

17. The antecedent is sometimes omitted; as, "Who lives to nature, rarely can be poor," meaning, "The person who lives."

18. *What* is sometimes apparently used as an adverb, but in all such cases the ellipsis can be supplied; as, "What doth it profit a man?" that is, "In what respect doth it profit a man?"

19. *What* should not be used for the conjunction *that*. Thus, "I don't know but *what* I shall go," should be, "I don't know but *that* I shall go."

Whichsoever, *whatsoever*, etc., are sometimes written as two words with other words intervening; as, "*which* side *soever*." In parsing, the two parts of the word should be taken together as one word.

20. The part of the sentence introduced by a relative pronoun is called a relative clause.

21. *None*, according to composition, is singular, meaning *no one*, yet it sometimes represents nouns in the plural as well as in the singular; as, "We hunted for berries, but found none."

Exercise I

Supply the proper pronouns in the following and give your reasons. Parse the pronouns in sentences 1 to 10. Give the use of pronouns in sentences 11 to 21.

1. He only —— is active and industrious can experience real pleasure.
2. Trust not him —— friendship is bought with gold.
3. Here is a bird's nest —— I found in the woods. —— is made of straw and moss —— the old birds found in the fields.
4. The multitude seek pleasure as —— chief good.
5. —— was here?
6. —— signed the Declaration of Independence?
7. The Board of Education has just published —— annual report.
8. The moon shed —— pale light over the landscape.
9. Lay up in your heart —— you have heard.
10. Solomon was the wisest man —— the world ever saw.
11. Either Mary or Elsie will let you look on —— book.
12. Not James but John offered —— assistance.
13. Each man received —— wages.
14. The horse —— ran away belongs to Mr. Jackson.
15. The men, horses, and wagon —— went over the cliff were lost.
16. She is as good as ——.
17. It appears to have been Irwin and Frank —— helped him.
18. What is it —— vexes you?
19. The ship —— I saw had a cargo —— was very valuable; its captain was a man —— every member of the crew obeyed, though —— was composed of men of the worst character.
20. The jury $\frac{\text{was}}{\text{were}}$ divided in —— opinion.
21. The secretary and treasurer was here; I saw ——.
22. Neither the boys nor the girls saw —— teacher.
23. The President and the Secretary of War reserved —— decision.
24. Neither John nor Howard finished —— work.
25. It was Whitney —— invented the cotton-gin.
26. Either Mildred or Dorothy will lend —— pencil.

Exercise II

Write the following sentences so that the meaning will be clearly expressed:

1. Take that book to the library, which I left on the table.
2. A bird was caught by a fox, which was web-footed.
3. The soldier was never rewarded by his captain, who was the bravest private in the company, because he differed with him in politics.
4. That officer was selected to arrest the thief, in whom the mayor placed the utmost confidence.
5. The king dismissed his minister without any inquiry, who had never before been guilty of so unjust an action.

Exercise III

Parse the adjective pronouns in sentences 1 to 5. Give the use of the adjective pronouns in sentences 6 to 10. Rewrite each sentence, changing the adjective pronouns to pronominal adjectives:

1. Many attempt, but few succeed.
2. This coat belongs to Samuel, and that belongs to Dorothy.
3. The plants are growing well, as I water both every day.
4. These are mine, but those are Howard's books.
5. Both will try for the prize, but neither will succeed as they are poor in language.
6. The birds have come North again; I saw several in the woods to-day.
7. He gave such as he had.
8. The books have been sold. Mr. Jones took all of them.
9. This letter came yesterday, but I have received none to-day.
10. Howard's brother and sister came to see him. He loved both very much.

Rule IX

AN ARTICLE MODIFIES THE NOUN TO WHICH IT RELATES.

NOTES

1. The noun to which the article relates is sometimes omitted; as, "Turn neither to the right nor to the left," meaning, "Turn neither to the right side nor to the left side." In such cases supply the noun and parse the article according to the rule, as modifying the noun thus supplied.

2. If there is an adjective before the noun, the article must precede the adjective; as, "A virtuous man," not "Virtuous a man." If the adjective before the noun is *all*, *such*, *many*, *what*, or *both*, or if the adjective is preceded by *too*, *so*, *as*, or *how*, the article must come after the adjective; as, "All the men," "Such a sight," "Too serious an undertaking."

3. When two or more connected adjectives relate to the same word, the article is used before the first adjective only; as, "A red and white flag," meaning one flag, partly red and partly white. But when the adjectives relate to different words, the article is used before each adjective; as, "A red and a white flag," meaning two flags, one red and one white.

4. In using the comparative with *than*, if the nouns before and after "than" both refer to the same word, the article should be used before the first noun only; as, "He is a better speaker than writer"; but if the nouns refer to different words, the article should be used before each noun; as, "A man makes a better soldier than a woman."

5. *A* or *an* is used with nouns in the singular number only; as, "A man." The exceptions to this are apparent rather than real. Thus, "A few things" means a certain number of things, and not more; "A thousand men" means one thousand of men, and not two thousand. The *a* should be parsed as relating to the words "few" and

"thousand," used as nouns in the singular, and the word following governed by *of* understood.

6. A marked difference of meaning is produced by the use or the omission of *a* before the words *few* and *little*. "He has *a* little decency" means he has at least *some*. "He has *little* decency" intimates a doubt whether he has *any*.

7. The article should be used before each of two or more nouns connected by *or* or *nor;* as, "*Either* the teacher *or* the pupil was in fault."

Exercise I

Give the use of each article in the following sentences. Name the subject and predicate of each sentence:

1. Time destroys both the great and the small.
2. Glory to God in the highest.
3. Fire is a better servant than master.
4. A rosy faced boy and a pale girl were seen on the right of the room.
5. The banner of the United States is a red, white, and blue flag.
6. He had a few pupils, who came twice a week to receive lessons.

Exercise II

Parse each article in the following sentences. Give the use of each phrase:

1. The light worthless kernels will not grow.

2. "The vine still clings to the mouldering wall
   But at every gust the dead leaves fall;
   And the day is dark and dreary."

3. The gale sighed itself to rest again.
4. The man, tarrying behind the others, failed to see the danger until it was too late.
5. "It is the hour when from the boughs
   The nightingale's high note is heard."

Exercise III

State the difference in meaning between sentences 1 and 2; 3 and 4; 5 and 6; 7 and 8; 9 and 10; 11 and 12:

1. A black and white horse went down the street.
2. A black and a white horse went down the street.
3. The barn is on fire.
4. A barn is on fire.
5. The sixth and last volume has been issued.
6. The sixth and the last volume have been issued.
7. I have a green and a blue dress.
8. I have a green and blue dress.
9. The soldier described the battle.
10. The soldier described a battle.
11. He has little money.
12. He has a little money.

Rule X

An Adjective Modifies the Noun or the Pronoun to which it Relates.

NOTES

1. The noun to which the adjective relates is sometimes omitted; as, "Of many evils, choose the least," meaning, "Of many evils, choose the least evil." In such cases supply the omission, and parse the adjective as modifying the noun thus supplied.

2. An adjective sometimes modifies an infinitive, or a part of a sentence, used as a noun; as, "To use profane language is both *foolish* and *wicked*." In such cases the adjective should be parsed as modifying the infinitive or the part of a sentence used as a noun.

3. The infinitive and the participle are sometimes found with an adjective after them not modifying any particular noun, but used indefinitely; as, "To be *good* is the surest way of being *happy*." "Good," here, is to be parsed by

saying that it is an adjective used indefinitely after the infinitive. In like manner, "happy" is used indefinitely after the participle.

4. When an adjective expresses any number more than one, the noun or pronoun to which it relates must be plural; as, "Ten pounds," not "Ten pound." Some nouns, however, have a plural meaning with a singular form; as, "Ten sail of the line." In such instances the plural form of the noun is not required.

5. When two adjectives precede a noun, both expressing number, one of them may express the idea of unity, the other that of plurality; as, "One hundred men," "The first ten lines." In these instances the several things are considered in their aggregate capacity as forming one whole. The rule of construction is to use the singular adjective before the plural one; as, "The first ten lines," not "The ten first lines."

6. By an idiom of the English language *many* is sometimes used before the singular with *a* prefixed; as, "Many a flower."

7. The comparative degree refers to two objects, the superlative to more than two; as, "John is the *taller* of the two," "James is the *tallest* of the three boys."

8. The comparative considers the objects compared as belonging to different classes; as, "Eve was fairer than any of *her daughters*." The superlative considers the objects as belonging to one class; as, "Eve was the fairest of *women*."

9. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper. Thus, "A worser man," should be, "A worse man"; "The most politest boy," should be, "The politest boy."

10. Some adjectives express a quality incapable of increase or diminution; as, *chief, extreme, universal.* In such cases the comparative and superlative terminations should not be used.

11. Adjectives should not be used for adverbs, that is, to modify verbs, adverbs, or other adjectives. "He speaks correct," should be, "He speaks correctly"; "A sufficient

long time, "should be, "A sufficiently long time"; "He came remarkable soon," should be, "He came remarkably soon."

12. Adjectives which modify the subject and complete the predicate of a sentence are called *Predicate Adjectives*. The predicate adjective is a complement of the predicate. "The apple is *green*." "The iron was *hot*." "The boy is *tired*." "The milk tastes *sour*." "He looks *warm*."

13. In poetry, an adjective is sometimes used in the sense of an adverb; as, "*Slow* rises merit when by poverty oppressed." In these cases the word is an adverb and should be so parsed.

14. An adjective is sometimes used as a noun; as, "None but the *brave* deserve the *fair*"; "All partial *evil* is but universal *good*."

15. *This* and *that* are used with singular nouns; *these* and *those*, with plural nouns. "*This* sort of person," not "*These* sort."

16. A personal pronoun should not be used for a pronominal adjective; as, "*Those* books, not "*Them* books."

Exercise I

Select the correct word in *italic* in the following sentences and state your reasons:

1. He ran *swift* (*swiftly*).
2. James is the *taller* (*tallest*) of the two.
3. That is a *remarkable* (*remarkably*) good picture.
4. Rhode Island is the *smaller* (*smallest*) state.
5. He writes *elegant* (*elegantly*).
6. He slept *good* (*well*).
7. The time has *most* (*almost*) come.
8. Write *careful* (*carefully*).
9. That is the *most beautiful* (*beautifulest*) flower that I have ever seen.
10. The water is *cold* (*coldly*) to-day.
11. That boy is *duller* (*dullest*) than any of his friends.
12. That is the *most principal* (*principal*) river of the state.

13. New York is the *largest* (*larger*) American city.
14. That is the *unkindest* (*most unkind*) remark made this afternoon.
15. Sing the *two last* (*last two*) stanzas.

Exercise II

Parse the adjectives in sentences 1 to 5. Give the use of the adjectives in sentences 6 to 10:

1. A great reward has been offered for the detection of the vile criminal.
2. His insolence was intolerable.
3. Spain at one time possessed a greater commerce than any other European nation.
4. Solid granite walls are no protection in modern warfare.
5. Bessie bought a pair of brown gloves.
6. The commercial nations of Europe were anxious to find new routes to India.
7. The last three mails brought me no good news.
8. The day was delightful.
9. Sing the first three stanzas of the hymn.
10. "In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas;
    Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand-Pré
    Lay in the fruitful valley."

Exercise III

In the following sentences select the proper word in *italic* and give your reasons:

1. John and William are here, I saw *each* (*either*) of them.
2. *Either* (*any*) boy of the four may go the errand.
3. I do not care for *that* (*those*) kind of apples.
4. Pick up *these* (*them*) books.
5. Essays of *that* (*those*) sort are easily written.
6. *Either* (*any*) wagon of the two is well made.

7. We all love *this* (*these*) sort of flowers.
8. Let me have two of *those* (*them*) peaches.
9. *This* (*that*) picture is more beautiful than *this* (*that*) in the other room.
10. *Either* (*every*) side of that square is five inches long.

Rule XI

A Participle Modifies the Noun or the Pronoun to which it Relates.

NOTES

1. The participle is often used as a noun, either in the nominative or in the objective case, and at the same time, as a part of a verb, it retains its government of the objective; as, "*Writing* letters is easier than writing compositions" (nominative case); "In *writing* letters he soon became expert" (objective case).

2. The participle used as a noun is frequently found governing another noun in the possessive case; as, "Much depends on John's *writing* his letters rapidly."

3. The participle is sometimes used simply as a noun; as, "Avoid foolish *talking* and *jesting*." When so used, parse the word as a participial noun in the third person, neuter gender.

4. The participle is sometimes used simply as an adjective; as, "*Singing* birds abound in summer," "He is a *learned* man." When a participle is so used, call it a participial adjective, and parse it as any other adjective.

5. When a participial noun has an article before it, it should have "of" after it; as, "*The* learning *of* Greek," not "*The* learning Greek." In such sentences the article and the preposition should either both be used or both omitted. The latter is by far the more common.

6. A participle of the verb *to be* may have a noun or a pronoun after it in the same case as the one before it; as, "Thomas, being an apt *scholar*, won the favor of his teacher." This rule applies also to the participles of many

other intransitive verbs, and likewise to the participles of the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "Solomon while reigning *king*, built the temple," "Washington, being appointed *commander-in-chief*, proceeded at once to Cambridge."

7. A participle of the verb *to be*, when used as a participial noun, may have a noun after it used indefinitely; as, "His being a good *penman* soon gained him employment." Here, "penman" is not the subject of "gained," nor is it in apposition with anything understood before "being," but is used indefinitely after the participle "being." This rule applies also to the participles of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise to the participles of the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "Living a consistent *Christian* is not easy," "Being called a *Roman* was counted a great honor."

8. A participle may be used indefinitely after the infinitive of the verb *to be*, used as a noun; as, "To be forever in one place, *doing* nothing, would be intolerable." "Doing," here, relates to no noun, but is used indefinitely. This rule applies also to participles after the infinitive of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise to some transitive verbs in the passive voice; as, "To remain *doing* nothing would be intolerable." "To be found *stealing* is a disgrace."

9. When the noun to which a participle relates is in the nominative absolute, this fact should always be mentioned in parsing the participle.

10. Care should be taken not to confound the past tense and the past participle; as, "He *began* to write," not "He *begun* to write"; "He *did* it," not "He *done* it"; "He *saw* it," not "He *seen* it."

11. Care should be taken not to use the past tense instead of the past participle after the auxiliaries *to have* and *to be;* as, "He has *gone* home," not "He has *went* home"; "It was *written*," not "It was *wrote*."

12. Participles are sometimes called verbals, because they have the nature of a verb in part but not wholly,

and also the nature of some other part of speech. Participles used as nouns are then called *Verbal Nouns*, and participles used as adjectives are called *Verbal Adjectives*.

Exercise I

Give the use of all participles in sentences 1 to 10. Parse all participles in sentences 11 to 20:

1. Considering his age, he is very wise.
2. By carefully reading your compositions you may detect errors in spelling.
3. Surprising news came from his home.
4. A shattered oak stood on the brink of the river.
5. It is freezing cold.
6. The hail, rattling against the windows, aroused them.
7. Knowledge, softened by good breeding, makes a man beloved and admired.
8. Having finished his speech, he descended from the platform.
9. The youthful poet, while walking alone in the woods, fell into a reverie.
10. Much depends on the observing of the rules.
11. The sea, rushing over the deck, carried away a sailor.
12. The army, defeated by the Indians, retreated to the fort.
13. The dog barking continually was very annoying.
14. Reading maketh a full man; writing, an exact man.
15. The vultures, circling around, showed by their actions the presence of food.
16. Having been well educated, I felt that I should be successful.
17. Breaking windows by throwing stones is a species of mischief which is as wrong as dishonesty.
18. The letter, written very rapidly, contained several mistakes.
19. The vessel, driven on the rocks by the gale, was a total wreck.
20. The bill, having been passed by both Houses, was sent to the President.

Exercise II

Select the correct word in *italic* and give your reasons:

1. He was greatly heated and he *drank* (*drunk*) with avidity.
2. The French language is *spoke* (*spoken*) in every kingdom in Europe.
3. William *done* (*did*) a gross act of injustice.
4. The boy said, "I *seen* (*saw*) the flag waved."
5. When the Pilgrims *had come* (*came*) to America, the streams were *froze* (*frozen*), and the birds had *flew* (*flown*) to warmer regions.
6. I would have *wrote* (*written*) a letter to-day.
7. He soon *began* (*begun*) to be weary of doing nothing.
8. The young man, *having rode* (*ridden*) to town rapidly, was in time for the opening of the match.
9. He has *lain* (*laid*) on the couch several hours to-day.
10. The treaty was *broke* (*broken*) by the Indians.

Rule XII

An Adverb Modifies the Verb, Adjective, or other Adverb to which it Relates.

NOTES

1. Adverbs are usually placed before adjectives, after verbs, and often between the auxiliary and the verb; as, "He is *very* attentive." "She behaves *well*." "They are *much* esteemed." This rule is far from being universal in its application. It is impossible to give any rule which shall determine the position of the adverb in all circumstances.

2. Adverbs should not be used where adjectives are required, that is, to modify nouns or pronouns. Thus, "He dressed in a style *conformable* to the ruling fashion," not "*conformably*." "The dress looked *pretty*," not

"*prettily*." "Pretty," here, is an adjective describing "dress," and does not modify the verb "looked." It does not express the manner of looking.

3. *Hither, thither,* and *whither* were formerly used after verbs of motion. They are now used only on solemn occasions. Thus, "Come *here*," not "Come *hither*."

4. *Where* and *when* are often incorrectly used instead of *which* and its adjuncts; thus, "The situation *where* I found him" should be "The situation *in which* I found him." "Since *when* I have not seen him" should be "Since *which time* I have not seen him.

5. *There* is often used indefinitely, its only force being to introduce the verb; as, "There is truth in the old proverb." In such sentences *there* does not mean *in that place.*

6. *How* should not be used for *that;* as, "He said *how* he would do it" should be "He said *that* he would do it."

7. *No* never qualifies a verb. When there is an ellipsis of the verb, *no* is sometimes incorrectly used instead of *not;* as, "Will you walk or *no?*" It should be "not," as will be seen by supplying the ellipsis. Thus, "Will you walk or will you *not* walk?"

8. *Nay, no, yea, yes,* expressing simply negation or affirmation, contain in themselves a complete sense, and do not modify any verb. The same is true of *Amen.*

9. Two negatives are improper if intended to express the same negation. When so used they destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative. Thus, "I can*not* by *no* means allow it" should be "I can by no means allow it" or "I cannot by any means allow it."

10. Sometimes when one of the negatives (such as *dis, in, un, im,* etc.) is joined to another word, the two negatives form a pleasing and delicate mode of affirming; as, "His language, though simple, is *not in*elegant," that is, "It is elegant."

11. An adverb should not be placed between the infinitive and *to.* "He preferred to *not* go" should be "He preferred *not* to go." "He determined to *thoroughly*

understand it" should be "He determined to understand it *thoroughly*."

12. An adverb is sometimes preceded by a preposition; as, *at once, for ever*. In such cases the two words should be taken together and called an adverb or an adverbial phrase.

13. Some adverbs perform at the same time the office of an adverb and of a conjunction; as, "Come *when* you desire. In this sentence *when* modifies the verb *come* as an adverb, but also connects the dependent clause with the principal statement. It, therefore, has the nature of a conjunction. Such words are called conjunctive adverbs. Conjunctive adverbs must always introduce a dependent clause.

Exercise I

Parse the adverbs and adverbial conjunctions in sentences 1 to 5. Give the use of the adverbs and adverbial conjunctions in sentences 6 to 10:

1. The coat is very dear.
2. The train runs very smoothly and quickly.
3. The travellers stopped when the sun set, and resumed their journey when light appeared in the East.
4. He spoke unaffectedly and forcibly, and was heard attentively by the whole assembly.
5. I will remain here until you return.
6. The troops had hardly left the fort when the enemy came rapidly over the hill.
7. Swiftly and silently the air-ship flew over the great city.
8. He told briefly and exactly how the events occurred.
9. They raised her gently and carried her inside.
10. The judge kindly, yet firmly, set forth the case.

Exercise II

In the following sentences select the proper word in *italic* and give your reasons:

1. I have *most* (*almost*) finished *most* (*almost*) of the work.
2. John does not look *good* (*well*) to-day.
3. She sang *sweet* (*sweetly*).
4. Can you see the speaker or *no* (*not*)?
5. Read *careful* (*carefully*).
6. The cars run *slow* (*slowly*) near the crossing.
7. How *easily* (*easy*) the coat fits.
8. The boy was *bad* (*badly*) to-day in school.
9. The boy behaved *bad* (*badly*) to-day in school.
10. The orator spoke *strange* (*strangely*) for such an occasion.

Rule XIII

An Infinitive Depends upon Some Verb, Adjective, or Noun.

Explanation.—An infinitive limits and complements the meaning of the word on which it depends. "I desire to sleep," "Prone to sleep," "A time to sleep." Here, if we have not the infinitive, the meaning in each case is incomplete. The words "to sleep" are needed, both to complete the sense of the word on which they depend and to give the word its intended limitation.

NOTES

1. The preposition *to*, which is used in making the form called the infinitive, and which is generally called the sign of the infinitive, is not to be parsed by itself, but with the verb.

2. *To*, the sign of the infinitive, is usually omitted after the active voice of the verbs *bid*, *dare* (to venture), *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, and some others; as, "I saw him do it." In the passive voice of these verbs, however, the "to" is usually expressed; as, "He was seen *to* do it."

3. *To*, the sign of the infinitive, should not be separated from the infinitive by inserting any other word or words.

Thus, "I am resolved to not go" should be "I am resolved not to go."

4. The infinitive seems sometimes to depend upon other parts of speech besides those enumerated in the rule. Thus, "Be so good *as* (conjunction) to read this letter." In such cases the sentence is elliptical. The meaning is, "Be so good as you must be in order to read this letter."

5. The infinitive is sometimes used apparently without dependence upon any word; as, "To speak plainly, I do not entirely approve your conduct." This construction also is elliptical. The meaning is, "In order to speak plainly, I do not entirely approve your conduct."

6. The infinitive is frequently used as a noun, and at the same time retains its government of the objective case. Thus, "*To write* letters is easy." Here, "to write," as a noun, is the subject of "is," and at the same time, as a verb, it governs "letters."

7. Tense of the Infinitive.—Whenever the action or event signified by the infinitive is contemporary or future with respect to the verb on which it depends, the present tense of the infinitive is required. Hence, verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command must invariably be followed by the present and not the perfect infinitive. Thus, "I expected to have found him" should be "I expected to find him."

8. Infinitives are sometimes called *Verbals* because they have the nature of the verb in part, but not wholly, and also the nature of some other part of speech. Infinitives used as nouns are then called *Verbal Nouns*, and infinitives used as adjectives are called *Verbal Adjectives*.

Exercise

Parse all infinitives in sentences 1 to 15. Give the use of all infinitives in sentences 16 to 30

1. A man anxious to reach home will aim to be at the station in time to secure his seat.

2. A good man loves to do good.

3. They wish to learn.

4. He has written some things hard to be understood.

5. The desire to be rich is one of the strongest of human desires.

6. A man eager to learn the truth is not apt to fall into error.

7. She is worthy to be loved.

8. They need not call her.

9. I dare not proceed so hastily.

10. He bade me go home.

11. He was seen to write the letter.

12. It is the difference of their conduct which makes us approve the one and reject the other.

13. He was seen do it, though I heard his father tell him not to do it.

14. Help me finish this work, and you will not find the time pass so slowly.

15. I cannot dig, to beg I am ashamed.

16. The driver was to blame.

17. Pride is harder to overcome than poverty.

18. Please give me that book.

19. I dare do all that may become a man; who dare do more is none.

20. It is cowardly to tell a lie.

21. Hear him talk.

22. He knows when to purchase.

23. I did not intend to hurt him.

24. This is to let you know that I am well.

25. He begged to be released from his prison.

26. To live righteously, soberly, and godly is required of all men.

27. To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind from tumultuous emotions, are the best preservatives of health.

28. I am not so stupid as to make such an error.

29. To be candid with you, I must say, you did wrong.

30. Not to leave you under the impression that I was one of your supporters, I tell you I did not vote for you.

Rule XIV

A Conjunction Connects the Words, Sentences, Phrases, or Clauses between which it Stands.

NOTES

1. The words connected by coördinate conjunctions must be of the same class. Nouns are connected with nouns, adjectives with adjectives, verbs with verbs, adverbs with adverbs, etc. Nouns and pronouns are here considered as belonging to one class.

2. Subordinate conjunctions connect dependent clauses with independent clauses; as, "*If* the wind is very strong, we will not sail to-day." "I came that way *because* it was the shortest."

3. There is sometimes an ellipsis of one of the words or clauses, giving the appearance of a conjunction not truly connective; as, "*That* John has written the letter, is easily proved." Here "that" seems simply to introduce a clause which is the subject of the verb. But by supplying the ellipsis, "*The fact* that John has written the letter," the true connective character of the conjunction appears.

4. Words and dependent clauses are often connected, not by a single conjunction, but by two conjunctions, or by a conjunction and an adverb, corresponding to each other; as, "Give me *neither* poverty *nor* riches"; "The method proposed was defective, *inasmuch as* it did not provide the means for carrying the plan into effect."

The following is a list of the principal conjunctions that have a corresponding conjunction or adverb:

As—as; as, My land is as good as yours (equality).
As—so; as, As the stars, so shall thy seed be (equality or proportion).
Both—and; as, I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the Barbarians.
Either—or; as, Either she or her sister must go.
If—then; as, If he speaks true, then you speak false.

Neither—nor; as, It is neither cold nor hot.

Not only—but also; as, Not only his character but also his life was at stake.

So—as; He is not so wise as his brother (denying equality).

So—that; I am so weak that I cannot walk (consequence).

Though—yet; as, Though he was rich, yet for our sakes he became poor.

Whether—or; as, Whether he will do it or not, I cannot say.

5. The comparative degree and the words *other*, *rather*, and *else* are usually followed by *than;* as, "John is greater *than* James."

6. After *than* there is almost always an ellipsis of several words. In supplying these words, the latter clause must be analogous to or resemble the preceding; as, "John has written more than James," meaning, "John has written more than James *has written.*

7. Conjunctions usually connect the same modes and tenses of verbs and the same cases of nouns and pronouns; as, "He reads and writes well"; "I saw him and her."

8. When conjunctions connect verbs in the same mode and tense the subject is usually not repeated; but when the verbs connected are in different modes or tenses the subject should be used before each; as, "He may return, but he will not remain." The subject is also often repeated when, in the progress of the sentence, we pass from the positive form of expression to the negative; from the negative to the positive; or when a contrast is made; as, "Though I admire him greatly, yet I do *not* love him" (from positive to negative); "Though I do *not* love him, yet I admire him greatly" (from negative to positive); "Though he was rich, *yet* he became poor" (contrast).

Exercise I

Parse the conjunctions in sentences 1 to 5. Give the use of the conjunctions in sentences 6 to 10:

1. Jacob or Mary has gone down town.
2. Forget the faults of others and remember your own.
3. He could not speak because he was so angry.
4. His brother is taller than he.
5. The steamer arrived safely, but it was without a cargo.
6. Both the President and the Vice-President favored the bill.
7. I will not be absent, since you desire me to be present
8. If Congress passes the bill, the President will sign it.
9. Neither the house nor the barn was destroyed.
10. The Delaware and Schuylkill join below the city.

Exercise II

Supply the proper conjunctions in each of the following:

1. It was not believed —— we were defeated.
2. Wood is not —— durable —— iron.
3. One hour is —— long —— another.
4. He ate so much —— he became sick.
5. Though he was severe with the vicious, —— he was lenient to those who tried to do right.
6. —— John or his brother is here.
7. —— John nor his brother is here.
8. Do —— I do.
9. The teacher read a short —— interesting story.
10. I wonder —— he will come.

Rule XV.—Interjections

An Interjection Has no Dependence upon Other Words.

NOTES

1. In parsing an interjection all that is necessary is to state what part of speech it is.

2. Sometimes interjections have the appearance of governing the objective case; as, "Ah me!" Such sentences

are always elliptical, some verb or preposition being understood. In the expression, "Ah me!" the word *pity* or some other such word is understood. The sentence means, "Ah! *pity* me."

II. ANALYSIS

Analysis treats of the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

I. PARTS OF A SENTENCE

A **Sentence** is a number of words put together so as to make complete sense; as, "Man is mortal."

A sentence may consist of a single word; as, "Depart."

The Essential Parts of a sentence are the Subject and the Predicate.

The Subject is that of which something is asserted or affirmed.

The Predicate is that which is asserted or affirmed of the Subject.

In the sentence, "Man lives," *man* is the Subject, *lives* is the Predicate.

There cannot be a sentence without a Subject, expressed or understood.

In the sentence, "*Depart,*" the Subject is *thou* or *you* understood.

There canot be a sentence without a Predicate, expressed or understood.

A Subject and a Predicate, together, make a sentence.

I. THE SUBJECT

Distinction of Simple or Grammatical Subject and Complete or Logical Subject

SIMPLE SUBJECT

The **Simple Subject** is simply the word or words subject of the verb, without any modifiers.

The simple subject may be:

(*a*) A Noun: A great *vessel* slowly entered the port.
(*b*) A Pronoun: *They* ran quickly for the doctor.
(*c*) A Participial Noun: *Running* is good exercise.
(*d*) A Participial Phrase: *Breathing deeply* strengthens the lungs.
(*e*) An Infinitive used as a Noun: *To run* is good exercise.
(*f*) An Infinitive Phrase: *To see the sun* is pleasant.
(*g*) A Clause: *That they would win* was admitted by their opponents.

The simple subjects here are: *vessel, they, running, breathing deeply, to run, to see the sun,* and *that they would win.*

A **Compound Subject** is one which consists of two or more subjects connected by one or more conjunctions.

(*h*) The *secretary* and the *treasurer* are present.
(*i*) *John* or *James* broke the glass.
(*j*) The old brown *house* and the big red *barn* on the hill were burned yesterday.
(*k*) *To run rapidly* and *to swim swiftly* develop the lungs.

The compound subjects here are: *secretary* and *treasurer, John* or *James, house* and *barn,* and *to run rapidly* and *to swim swiftly.*

COMPLETE SUBJECT

The **Complete Subject** is the simple subject or subjects with all modifiers.

The complete subjects in the sentences given above are:

(*a*) *A great vessel.*
(*b*) *They.*
(*c*) *Running.*
(*d*) *Breathing deeply.*
(*e*) *To run.*
(*f*) *To see the sun.*
(*g*) *That they would win.*
(*h*) *The secretary and the treasurer.*
(*i*) *John or James.*
(*j*) *The old brown house and the big red barn on the hill.*
(*k*) *To run rapidly and to swim swiftly.*

MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT

The Modifiers of the Subject are of three kinds, namely, Single Words, Phrases, and Clauses.

For definition, classification, and illustrations of phrases and clauses refer to pages 181–185.

The following are examples of each of the three kinds of modifiers:

1. **Single Words.**—"*The good* man has departed." Here "the" and "good" are single words, modifying the subject "man."

2. **Phrases.**—"The good man, *in the midst of his usefulness,* has departed. Here the words, "in the midst of his usefulness," form a modifying phrase.

3. **Clauses.**—"The good man, *who had gained great renown,* departed." Here the words, "who had gained great renown," form a modifying clause.

WAYS IN WHICH THE SUBJECT IS MODIFIED

The Subject is modified as follows:

1. By an article; as, "*The* man has arrived."
2. By an adjective; as, "*Good* men are few."

3. By a noun or pronoun in apposition; as, "James Brown, *artist,* is dead"; "Elizabeth *herself* has arrived."

4. By a noun or pronoun in the possessive; as, "*Winter's* frosts have disappeared"; "*Your* time has come."

5. By a participle; as, "Brothers *divided* are a sad sight."

6. By an infinitive; as, "The time *to study* should not be lost."

7. By a phrase, which may be—

   A prepositional phrase; as, "The lessons *of the day* were not recited."

   An appositional phrase; as, "John, *the Baptist,* preached in the wilderness."

   A participial phrase; as, "The sun, *shining through the mist,* looked white and ghastly."

   An infinitive phrase; as, "The book *to be read this week* is easy."

8. By a clause, which may be—

   A relative clause; as, "Lessons *which are easy* are apt to be neglected."

   A conjunctional clause; as, "The fear *that he might be detected* kept him from committing the crime."

HELPS TO FIND THE MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT

Place the following words before the simple subject and ask the questions:

What ——? What kind of ——? Whose ——? How many ——?

Continue to ask each question until no answer can be found or until all the modifiers have been named.

FORM FOR ANALYSIS OF SUBJECT

Sentence.—"A large increase of wealth might make him careless."

This is a simple declarative sentence.

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Common noun "increase." Modified by: *Adjective Modifier.*—Article "a." *Adjective Modifier.*—Adjective "large." *Adjective Modifier.*—Prepositional phrase "of wealth." *Complete Subject.*—"A large increase of wealth."	

Sentence.—"The large red book, which is on the table, belongs to the school library."

This is a complex declarative sentence.

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Common noun "book." Modified by: *Adjective Modifier.*—Article "the." *Adjective Modifier.*—Adjective "large." *Adjective Modifier.*—Adjective "red." *Adjective Modifier.*—Relative clause "which is on the table." *Complete Subject.*—"The large red book which is on the table."	

Analysis of subject of clause, "which is on the table."

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Relative pronoun "which." *Complete Subject.*—"Which."	

Sentence.—"The earnest conviction of Christopher Columbus, that he would reach land by sailing westward, led to the discovery of the new world."

This is a complex declarative sentence.

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Common noun "conviction." Modified by: *Adjective Modifier.*—Article "the." *Adjective Modifier.*—Adjective "earnest." *Adjective Modifier.*—Prepositional phrase "of Christopher Columbus." *Adjective Modifier.*—Conjunctional clause "that he would reach land by sailing westward." *Complete Subject.*—"The earnest conviction of Christopher Columbus, that he would reach land by sailing westward."	

Exercise

Analyze the subject in the following sentences:

1. Great drops of perspiration stood on his forehead.
2. The heavy, dense fog which we met near Newfoundland delayed the steamer.

3. The President, General Jackson, failing to sign the bill, sent it back to the House of Representatives.

4. Several crops of tea can be picked from a tea plant in a year.

5. The oak floor, whitened by continual scrubbing, was found in every home.

6. What were the effects of the opening of the Erie Canal?

7. The thorough knowledge of Scripture helps us in understanding all other truth.

8. An anxious desire to do right was manifest in all his conduct.

9. James's impetuous disposition, which ought to have been checked, was allowed to have free sway.

10. The great apostle Paul himself was subject to calumny.

11. A selfish desire for wealth, unchecked, is apt to pervert the moral principles.

12. A neat little cottage, standing by the river's brink, attracted his attention.

13. The tallest oak must bend before the mighty power of the wind.

14. Henry, an English king, was considered to be a great scholar because he could write his name.

15. Mighty kings and emperors bowed before his throne.

16. To analyze and to parse are excellent exercises.

WAYS IN WHICH THE MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT ARE MODIFIED

Modifiers of the Subject may themselves be modified by other words, as follows:

1. A noun used as a modifier of the subject may be modified in all respects as the principal noun.

Example.—"James Applegate, the old *man* that you spoke of, has left for parts unknown."

2. An adjective used as a modifier of the subject may be modified—

By a preposition and its object.
By an infinitive.
By an adverb.

Examples.—"A man merciful *in disposition*." "A man quick *to resent* injury." "A *very* abundant harvest."

Note.—An adverb used to modify an adjunct adjective may itself be modified—

By another adverb.
By a preposition and its object.

Examples.—"*Most* thoroughly wicked." "An essay replete, agreeably *to expectation*, with varied knowledge."

3. A participle or an infinitive, used as a modifier of the subject, may be modified—

By an object.
By a preposition with its object.
By an infinitive.
By an adverb.

Examples of the Participle.—"The man, having written *the letter*, mailed it." "The man, living *in ease*, became indolent." "The man, wishing *to sleep*, retired to his room." "The man, *thoroughly* frightened, fled from the house."

Examples of the Infinitive.—"A desire to gain *honor*." "A desire to live *in ease*." "A resolution to cease *to do* evil." "A resolution to cease *immediately* from evil courses."

II. THE PREDICATE

Distinction of Simple or Grammatical Predicate and Complete or Logical Predicate

SIMPLE PREDICATE

The **Simple Predicate** is simply the predicate verb without any modifiers.

Examples: (*a*) The man *lives* in Europe most of the year.

(*b*) The man *has* at length *reached* home safely.

(*c*) The French *were defeated* by the Germans.

The simple predicates here are the verbs *lives*, *has reached*, and *were defeated*.

A **Compound Predicate** is one which consists of two or more predicate verbs connected by one or more conjunctions:

(*d*) The boys *played* and *sang* during the evening.

(*e*) The trees *were waved* and *tossed* by the storm.

(*f*) The blood *nourishes* and *strengthens* the body.

(*g*) The sun *rose* and *set* that day in dark clouds.

(*h*) The days *came* and *went* without relief to the sufferers.

The compound predicates here are *played* and *sang*, *were waved* and *tossed*, *nourishes* and *strengthens*, *rose* and *set*, *came* and *went*.

THE COMPLETE PREDICATE

The **Complete Predicate** consists of the simple predicate or predicates with all modifiers.

The complete predicates in the sentences given above are:

(*a*) *Lives in Europe most of the year.*

(*b*) *Has at length reached home safely.*

(*c*) *Were defeated by the Germans.*

(*d*) *Played and sang during the evening.*

(*e*) *Were waved and tossed by the storm.*

(*f*) *Nourishes and strengthens the body.*

(*g*) *Rose and set that day in dark clouds.*

(*h*) *Came and went without relief to the sufferers.*

PREDICATE COMPLEMENTS

A **Predicate Complement** is a word which completes the predicate verb.

The complements of the predicate may be an object, a predicate nominative, or a predicate adjective.

1. *Object Complement;* as, "Father bought the *house.*" "He said *that he was going home.*" "I saw *him.*" Here *house, that he was going home,* and *him* are objects of the verbs and are *object complements.*

2. *Predicate Nominative Complement;* as, "James is *commander.*" Here *commander,* a predicate nominative, completes the predicate and is a *predicate nominative complement.*

3. *Predicate Adjective Complement;* as, "The sky was blue." Here *blue,* a predicate adjective, completes the predicate and is a *predicate adjective complement.*

MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE

The Modifiers of the Predicate are of three kinds, namely, Single Words, Phrases, and Clauses.

The following are examples of these three kinds of modifiers:

1. **Single Words.**—"The old man went *back slowly.*" Here "back" and "slowly" are single words modifying the predicate "went."

2. **Phrases.**—"The old man went *to his home in great haste.*" Here the phrases "to his home" and "in great haste" modify the predicate "went."

3. **Clauses.**—"The old man came *while I was talking to James.*" Here the clause "while I was talking to James" modifies the predicate "came."

WAYS IN WHICH THE PREDICATE IS MODIFIED

The simple predicate may be modified:

1. By an adverb; as "He writes *rapidly*."
2. By a prepositional phrase; as, "The army marched *to Vicksburg*."
3. By an infinitive or infinitive phrase; as, "He went *to look*." "The boy was sent *to buy meat*."
4. By a clause; as,

Adverbial.—"Go *before it rains*."

Conjunctional.—"The walk was abandoned *because they were weary*."

WAYS IN WHICH THE MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE ARE MODIFIED BY OTHER ADJUNCTS

Modifiers of the predicate may themselves be modified by other words.

The several parts of speech when used as modifiers of the predicate are modified in the same manner as when used as modifiers of the subject (see pages 168 and 170).

Give illustrations of the ways in which the various parts of speech may be modified as adjuncts to the predicate.

HELPS TO FIND THE COMPLEMENTS AND MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE

In order to find the complements and modifiers of the predicate, place the following words after the simple predicate, and ask the questions:

—— whom or what? —— how? —— when? —— where? —— why?

Continue asking each question until no answer can be found, or until all the modifiers have been named.

FORM FOR ANALYSIS OF PREDICATE

Sentence.—"The plant grew rapidly in the sunshine."

This is a simple declarative sentence.

Subject	*Predicate*
	Simple Predicate.—Verb "grew." Modified by: *Adverbial Modifier.*—Adverb "rapidly." *Adverbial Modifier.*—Prepositional phrase "in the sunshine." *Complete Predicate.*—"Grew rapidly in the sunshine."

Sentence.—"The wrestler quickly found in the city a man who was willing to compete with him."

This is a complex declarative sentence.

Subject	*Predicate*
	Simple Predicate.—Verb "found." *Complement-Object.*—Noun "man," which is modified by the adjective modifiers article "a" and relative clause "who was willing to compete with him." Modified by: *Adverbial Modifier.*—Adverb "quickly." *Adverbial Modifier.*—Prepositional phrase "in the city." *Complete Predicate.*—"Quickly found in the city a man who was willing to compete with him."

ANALYSIS OF THE PREDICATE OF THE DEPENDENT CLAUSE

Clause.—"Who was willing to compete with him."

Subject	*Predicate*
	Simple Predicate.—Verb "was."
	Complement.—Predicate adjective "willing,' which is modified by the adverbial modifier the infinitive phrase "to compete with him."
	Complete Predicate.—"Was willing to compete with him."

Exercises

Analyze the predicate in each of the following:

1. Wealth begets desire for wealth.
2. Men of learning have often been unwise.
3. The lark rises toward heaven singing.
4. On the Pacific Ocean success came quickly to the American forces.
5. The axe quickly cut the root which supplied nourishment for the greater part of the tree.
6. The ball bounded over the fence when it was struck very hard.

FORMS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

Sentence.—"A big black horse, drawing a wagon, ran rapidly into the stable."

This is a simple declarative sentence.

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Noun "horse."	*Simple Predicate.*—Verb "ran."
Modified by:	Modified by:
Adjective Modifier.—Article "a."	*Adverbial Modifier.*—Adverb "rapidly."
Adjective Modifier.—Adjective "big."	*Adverbial Modifier.*—Prepositional phrase "into the stable."
Adjective Modifier.—Adjective "black."	
Adjective Modifier.—Participial phrase "drawing a wagon."	
Complete Subject.—"A big black horse drawing a wagon."	*Complete Predicate.*—"Ran rapidly into the stable."

Sentence.—"The large picture which is on the wall was sent to me on my birthday by my brother James."

This is a complex declarative sentence.

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Noun "picture."	*Simple Predicate.*—Verb "was sent."
Modified by:	Modified by:
Adjective Modifier.—Article "the."	*Adverbial Modifier.*—Prepositional phrase "to me."
Adjective Modifier.—Adjective "large."	*Adverbial Modifier.*—Prepositional phrase "on my birthday."
Adjective Modifier.—Relative clause "which is on the wall."	*Adverbial Modifier.*—Prepositional phrase "by my brother James."
Complete Subject.—"The large picture which is on the wall."	*Complete Predicate.*—"Was sent to me on my birthday by my brother James."

ANALYSIS OF DEPENDENT CLAUSE

Clause.—"Which is on the wall."

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Relative pronoun "which."	*Simple Predicate.*—Verb "is."
	Modified by:
	Adverbial Modifier.—Prepositional phrase "on the wall."
Complete Subject.—"Which."	*Complete Predicate.*—"Is on the wall."

Sentence.—"The new tariff still protected manufacturers, and South Carolina opposed it."

This is a compound declarative sentence, composed of two members, "The new tariff still protected manufacturers" and "South Carolina opposed it," connected by the conjunction "and."

Member.—"The new tariff still protected manufacturers."

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Noun "tariff."	*Simple Predicate.*—Verb "protected."
Modified by:	*Complement - Object.* — The noun "manufacturers."
Adjective Modifier.—Article "the."	Modified by:
Adjective Modifier.—Adjective "new."	*Adverbial Modifier.*—Adverb "still."
Complete Subject.—"The new tariff."	*Complete Predicate.*—"Still protected manufacturers."

Member.—"South Carolina opposed it."

Subject	*Predicate*
Simple Subject.—Noun "South Carolina."	*Simple Predicate.*—Verb "opposed."
	Complement-Object.—Pronoun "it."
Complete Subject.—"South Carolina."	*Complete Predicate.*—"Opposed it."

Exercise

Analyze the following sentences:

1. The earnest conviction of Christopher Columbus that he would reach land by sailing westward led to the discovery of America.
2. Paul, the apostle, rejoicing steadfastly in the hope set before him, suffered martyrdom.
3. The birds with their bright feathers, sailing through the air, gladden the heart of man.
4. To whom did you give the letter?
5. In the center was a vast hollow square filled with innumerable flowering plants.
6. Sirius, the dog star, is visible during the long winter nights.
7. At the battle of Hastings, William of Normandy conquered Harold, the Saxon king.
8. The great railroads which span the country bring our products to our shores, and then many lines of steamships carry them to foreign ports.

II. KINDS OF SENTENCES

TWO WAYS OF CLASSIFYING SENTENCES

Sentences are divided into classes or kinds, first, in reference to their use; second, in reference to their structure.

I. Sentences, as to their use, are divided into three kinds, namely, Declarative, Interrogative, and Imperative.

A **Declarative Sentence** is one which is used simply to declare or deny, as,

"He has not failed."
"A life spent in doing good could not be a failure."
"How false he is!"
"The telegram was, 'Come home to-day.'"
"The teacher said, 'What is a noun?'"

An **Interrogative Sentence** is one which is used to ask a question; as,

"Has he failed?"
"Could a life spent in doing good be a failure?"
"Oh! Where is he?"
"Did your father say, 'Frank bought the horse?'"
"Did the corporal call, 'March?'"

An **Imperative Sentence** is one which is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit; as,

"Write the copy according to your directions."
"Father, forgive us."
"Go, if you desire it."
"Call to John, 'Where are you going?'"

II. Sentences, as to their structure, are divided into three kinds, Simple, Complex, and Compound.

I. SIMPLE SENTENCES

A **Simple Sentence** is one which contains but one subject and one predicate, one or both of which may be compound.

The subject and the predicate may have any kind or degree of complexity, except that arising from the introduction of a dependent clause, and yet the sentence be simple.

"The Delaware, the Raritan, and the connecting canal form a continuous line of navigation." This is a simple sentence with a compound subject.

"Lakes and oceans are large bodies of water." This is also a simple sentence with a compound subject.

"The tree withered and died." This is a simple sentence with a compound predicate.

"The boy and the dog ran and jumped all afternoon." This is a simple sentence with a compound subject and a compound predicate.

"A canoe, which is made of bark, is easily broken." This is not simple because the subject is modified by a clause. The sentence thus has two predicates, *is made* and *is broken*.

"The man learned that the canoe was made of bark." This is not simple because the predicate is completed by a clause. The sentence thus has two predicates, *learned* and *was made*.

"The foolish young man, in the flush of a momentary excitement, rushing out on the surging stream, at the time of high water, in a frail canoe made of bark, was rapidly whirled by the impetuosity of the descending current into the yawning abyss below." Here both the subject and the predicate are very complex, yet the sentence is simple. It has but one subject and one predicate.

II. COMPLEX SENTENCES

A **Complex Sentence** is one which contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses.

"A life which is spent in doing good cannot be a failure." This is a complex sentence because it consists of but one independent clause, *A life cannot be a failure*, and of a

dependent clause, *which is spent in doing good.* The sentence thus has two predicates.

"He was at the station when the train arrived." This is a complex sentence because it consists of but one independent clause, *He was at the station,* and of a dependent clause, *when the train arrived.* The sentence thus has two predicates.

III. COMPOUND SENTENCES

A **Compound Sentence** is one which contains two or more independent clauses, connected by one or more conjunctions.

"He left home in good season, and was at the station in time." This is a compound sentence, containing the independent clause, *He left home in good season,* and the independent clause, [*He*] *was at the station in time,* the two being connected by the conjunction *and.*

The independent clauses which compose a compound sentence are called its **Members.**

The Members of a compound sentence may be simple or complex; as, "The regiment quickly destroyed the stores and then they marched rapidly on toward the coast." "The regiment, which feared pursuit, quickly destroyed the stores and then they marched rapidly on toward the coast where they found safety."

III. PHRASES AND CLAUSES

I. Phrases

A **Phrase** is a number of words connected in meaning, but not containing a subject and a predicate.

CLASSIFICATION

Phrases are classified according to structure and use.

BY STRUCTURE

By structure phrases are prepositional, infinitive, participial, adjective, appositional.

(*a*) A prepositional phrase is one introduced by a preposition; as, "Independence Hall is *in Philadelphia*."

(*b*) An infinitive phrase is one introduced by an infinitive; as, "He determined *to live on vegetables only*."

(*c*) A participial phrase is one introduced by a participle, as, "*Living on vegetables*, he was not strong."

(*d*) An adjective phrase is one introduced by an adjective; as, "Youth, full of expectation, is ever sanguine."

(*e*) An appositional phrase is one consisting of a noun in apposition and its modifiers; as, "Wayne, *the commander of the army*, was present."

BY USE

By use phrases are classified as adjective, adverbial, substantive or noun, independent, and absolute.

(*a*) An adjective phrase is one that is used as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun; as, "The house *on the hill* was purchased yesterday." "The regiment, *ickly routing the enemy*, marched over the bridge."

(*b*) An adverbial phrase is one that is used as an adverb to modify a verb, adjective, or adverb; as, "He went *to see the parade*."

(*c*) A substantive or noun phrase is one that is used as a noun; as, "*Running rapidly* is very fatiguing." "*To eat the lunch* required time."

(*d*) An absolute phrase is one consisting of a noun in the nominative case absolute and its modifiers; as, "*The king being dead*, his eldest son succeeds to the throne."

(*e*) An independent phrase is one used as a mere exclamation: as, "*Detestable villain*, you deserve the halter."

Classify according to use and according to structure the phrases in the following:

1. "Write invitations to your parents and friends to attend the school exercises to be given by the pupils of your room."

2. "How beautiful is the rain!
After the dust and heat,
In the broad and fiery street,
In the narrow lane,
How beautiful is the rain."

3. "Summer lingers smiling through golden mists,
Tinting the wild grapes with her dewing fingers
Till the cool emerald turns to amethyst."

4. "The storm ceasing, the party, wet to the skin, started for home."

II. Clauses

A Clause is a part of a sentence containing a subject and a predicate.

Clauses are divided into two classes—*Independent* and *Dependent.*

An Independent Clause is a clause which does not depend on or modify any other part of the sentence. The independent clause may be coördinate with another independent clause, as in the compound sentence.

A Dependent Clause is a clause which depends on or modifies some other part of the sentence.

"Harrisburg, which is the capital of Pennsylvania, is on the Susquehanna River." This sentence consists of the independent clause, *Harrisburg is on the Susquehanna River*, and of the dependent clause, *which is the capital of Pennsylvania.*

"The storm broke before they reached shelter." The independent clause in this sentence is *The storm broke.* The dependent clause is *before they reached shelter.*

"The men worked very hard, but they did not finish the building on time." This sentence consists of two independent clauses: *The men worked very hard* and *they did not finish the building on time,* connected by the conjunction *but.*

Exercises

Select the independent clauses and the dependent clauses in the following:

1. If he comes, we will go.
2. The lion sprang quickly, but missed the bait.
3. The boat, which had not been anchored, floated slowly down the river.
4. Happy is the man that findeth wisdom.
5. The waves beat on the shore and they gradually tore away the sand.
6. One can show his courage by doing right.
7. "Beneath those rugged elms, that yew tree's shade,
   Where heaves the turf in many a mouldering heap,
   Each in his narrow cell forever laid,
   The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep."
8. "The stormy March is come at last,
   With wind, and cloud and changing skies;
   I hear the rushing of the blast,
   That through the snowy valley flies."

DEPENDENT CLAUSES

A dependent clause is a part of a sentence which contains a subject and a predicate and which is used to modify some other part or parts of the sentence.

CLASSIFICATION OF DEPENDENT CLAUSES

Dependent clauses are classified in two ways—by structure and by use.

BY STRUCTURE

By structure dependent clauses are relative, adverbial, and conjunctional.

(*a*) A relative clause is one introduced by a relative pronoun; as, "The man *who is faithful to duty* is to be honored." "The boy *to whom you gave the bicycle* is very thankful."

(*b*) An adverbial clause is one introduced by a conjunctive adverb; as, "He remained at the station *until the train arrived*."

(*c*) A conjunctional clause is one introduced by a conjunction; as, "He will meet you, *if you come on that train*."

BY USE

By use dependent clauses are adjective, adverbial, and substantive or noun.

(*a*) An adjective clause is one that is used as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun; as, "He *who hesitates* is lost."

(*b*) An adverbial clause is one that is used as an adverb to modify a verb, adjective, or adverb; as, "The letter arrived *after you had gone*."

(*c*) A substantive or noun clause is one that is used as a noun; as,

"*That life is uncertain* is known to all."

"We know *that Alaska is a cold country*."

"The maxim, '*Do it yourself*,' is very helpful."

"The hope of most people is *that they may succeed*."

Exercise

Classify, according to use, the dependent clauses in the exercise on page 178.

III. SYNTHESIS

Synthesis treats of the construction of a sentence from its parts.

Numerous exercises in synthesis have been given throughout this book, but it is deemed advisable to emphasize the following:

1. The enlargement of simple subject and simple predicate.
2. The combining of simple sentences into one simple sentence or into complex or compound sentences.
3. The changing of a simple sentence to a complex or compound sentence.
4. The changing of a complex sentence to a simple or compound sentence.
5. The changing of a compound sentence to a simple or complex sentence.

1. Enlargement of Simple Subject and Simple Predicate

The simple subject and simple predicate may be enlarged by single words, phrases, or clauses.

The various kinds of words, phrases, and clauses have already been thoroughly discussed and need not be repeated here.

Simple Subject and Simple Predicate.—Fish swim.

By Single Words.—The large gold fish swim rapidly.

By Phrases.—The large gold fish in the pond swim rapidly about the boat.

By Clauses.—The large gold fish in the pond, which are very tame, swim rapidly about the boat when they are fed.

Exercises

Enlarge the following nouns by the addition of two or more single word modifiers: Man, sheep, mountain, vessel, and house.

Enlarge the following by the addition of phrase and single word modifiers: Barn, paper, tree, city, and river.

Enlarge the following by the addition of a dependent clause: General Grant, Richmond, Washington, Frank, and Declaration of Independence.

Add single word, phrase, and clause modifiers to the following: Wagon, water, park, road, and wharf.

Add single word modifiers to the following: Ran, cut, signed, bind, and consented.

Add sing e word and phrase modifiers to the following: Went, leave, gild, come, and look.

Add dependent clauses to the following: Rested, hunt, crush, lay, and know.

Add single words, phrases, and clauses to the following: Walked, played, met, was hurt, and surrendered.

Enlarge the following simple subjects and simple predicates by the addition of single words, phrases, and clauses:

Boys play.	Birds fly.
Horse runs.	Enemy was defeated.
Birds sing.	Fire burns.
Trees grow.	Train was running.

2. Combining Simple Sentences

Simple Sentences Combined into One Simple Sentence

Simple sentences may be combined into one simple sentence by the use of the conjunction *and;* as,

"The horse is o'd. The horse is white."
"The horse is old and white."
"John is going away. James is going away."
"John and James are going away."

"The children ran on the grass. The children jumped on the grass."

"The children ran and jumped on the grass."

By use of phrases; as,

(Participial phrase).—"The horse is standing under the tree. The horse belongs to Mr. Sutton."

"The horse standing under the tree belongs to Mr. Sutton."

(Appositional phrase).—"Philadelphia is the chief seaport of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia is on the Delaware River."

"Philadelphia, the chief seaport of Pennsylvania, is on the Delaware River."

(Infinitive phrase).—"The birds flew South. They sought a winter home."

"The birds flew South to seek a winter home."

By additional way; as,

"The barn was burned. It was a large barn. It was burned yesterday. It was a red barn. The barn was on a hill."

"The large red barn on the hill was burned yesterday."

Exercises

Combine into simple sentences:

1. The large house is near the ocean.
   It is a frame house.
2. The prisoner was sullen.
   He was making shoes.
   They were white shoes.
3. The paper was published in the morning.
   It was a daily paper.
   The paper was small.
   It was owned by Mr. Melvin.

4. The boy was running rapidly.
   He caught a ball.
   The ball was red.
5. The men worked rapidly.
   They wanted to finish the house.
6. The boat was moving swiftly.
   It was a sail boat.
   It had two masts.
   The boat was green.
   The masts were made of steel.
   It was moving down the river.

Simple Combined into Complex Sentences

Simple sentences may be combined into complex sentences by use of the various kinds of clauses found under Analysis; as,

"The boy broke the window. The boy was punished."
"The boy who broke the window was punished."
"I have a dog. His name is Spot."
"I have a dog whose name is Spot."
"She was successful. Her success was due to her industry."
"She was successful because she was industrious."
"James received the message. He was at the station then."
"James received the message when he was at the station."
"The boy ran very rapidly. He was afraid of the dog."
"The boy ran very rapidly as he was afraid of the dog."

Exercises

Combine into complex sentences:

1. The wheel was made of iron.
   It had five spokes.
2. Baltimore is the capital of Maryland.
   It is on the Chesapeake Bay.

3. James was promoted.
   His promotion was the result of his good work during the term.
4. The servant went to the station.
   He saw his master there.
5. The farmer was in the field.
   He was sowing seed.
   It was cantaloupe seed.
6. The captain hurried to enter the harbor.
   An approaching storm caused him to hurry.
   His vessel would be safe in the harbor.

Simple Combined into Compound Sentences

Simple sentences may be combined into compound sentences by joining them by use of a coördinate conjunction; as,

"Pennsylvania is a large state. It is important on account of its size."

"Pennsylvania is a large state and it is important on account of its size."

"I met Frank. He invited me to go with him."

"I met Frank and he invited me to go with him."

"The bill was passed by the Senate. The clerk carried it to the President."

"The bill was passed by the Senate and the clerk carried it to the President."

"I will go to the river with you. I will not go swimming."

"I will go to the river with you, but I will not go swimming."

Exercises

Combine the following simple sentences into one simple sentence; into one complex sentence; into one compound sentence. Tell why your sentences are simple, complex, or compound:

1. The house is on the hill. The house is built of stone. It has a very large porch. It is owned by my father.

2. That girl is my sister. She is walking down the street. She has on a large hat. It is a brown hat.

3. The automobile is very large. It is a red automobile. It is standing at the corner. Three men are in the automobile. It belongs to Mr. Watson.

4. Pennsylvania is called the Keystone State. It was founded by Wm. Penn. Pennsylvania was founded in the 17th century.

5. The Declaration of Independence declared the colonies free from Great Britain. It was signed in Philadelphia. It was signed in 1776. It was signed in Independence Hall.

6. The tea was brought over in ships. It was thrown into the harbor by the colonists. The colonists were very indignant.

3. Simple Sentences Changed to Complex or Compound Sentences

Simple Changed to Complex Sentences

Simple sentences may be changed to complex sentences without altering the thought by changing single word or phrase modifiers to clauses.

Single words changed to clauses; as,

(Simple).—"*Singing* birds abound in summer."

(Complex).—"Birds *which sing* abound in summer."

Phrases changed to clauses: Appositional phrase changed to a clause; as,

(Simple).—"Franklin, the great philosopher, was born in Boston."

(Complex).—"Franklin, who was a great philosopher, was born in Boston."

Prepositional phrase changed to a clause; as,

(Simple).—"The book on the table is a dictionary."

(Complex).—"The book which is on the table is a dictionary."

Infinitive phrase changed to a clause; as,

(Simple).—"The birds flew South to find a winter home."

(Complex).—"The birds, who sought a winter home, flew South."

Participial phrase changed to a clause; as,

(Simple).—"The troops, having been defeated, marched to the West."

(Complex).—"The troops, who had been defeated, marched to the West."

Exercises

Change the following simple sentences to complex sentences without altering the thought:

1. Chicago, the largest city of Illinois, is on Lake Michigan.
2. The ball on top of the steeple was gilded.
3. The train, running very rapidly, jumped the rail.
4. The stream, overflowing its banks, did much damage.
5. The howling wind tore the sail from the mast.

Simple Changed to Compound Sentences

Simple sentences may be changed to compound sentences without altering the thought by selecting one of the ideas of the simple sentence and expressing it in an additional sentence.

(Simple).—"New York, the largest city in America, is the chief seaport of the United States."

(Compound).—"New York is the largest city in America and it is the chief seaport of the United States."

(Simple).—"The swimmer, having become exhausted, was drowned."

(Compound).—"The swimmer became exhausted and he was drowned."

(Simple).—"The river, swollen by the recent rains, flooded the streets."

(Complex).—"The river was swollen by the recent rains and it flooded the streets."

Exercises

Change the following simple sentences to compound sentences without altering the thought:

1. The shoes, having been worn out, were thrown away.
2. The team, having been defeated once, desired another game.
3. Paris, the center of art and fashion, greatly influenced the civilization of the world.
4. The book, recently written by Dr. Brown, has just come from the press.
5. Nathaniel Hawthrone, the celebrated American author, wrote "Twice Told Tales."

4. Complex Sentences Changed to Simple or Compound Sentences

Complex Changed to Simple Sentences

Complex sentences may be changed to simple sentences without altering the thought by changing the clause to a single word or a phrase.

Clause changed to a single word; as,

(Complex).—"Water which is standing will become stagnant."

(Simple).—"Standing water will become stagnant."

Clauses changed to phrases:

Clause changed to appositional phrase; as,

(Complex).—"Albany, which is the capital of New York, is on the Hudson River."

(Simple).—"Albany, the capital of New York, is on the Hudson River."

Clause changed to prepositional phrase; as,

(Complex).—"Albany, which is on the Hudson River, is the capital of New York."

(Simple).—"Albany, on the Hudson River, is the capital of New York."

Clause changed to a participial phrase; as,

(Complex).—"The map which was drawn by Frank was the best in the room."

(Simple).—"The map drawn by Frank was the best in the room."

Clause changed to an infinitive phrase; as,

(Complex).—"I was very glad when I received your letter."

(Simple).—"I was very glad to receive your letter."

Complex Changed to Compound Sentences

To change a complex sentence to a compound sentence without altering the thought, select one of the subordinate ideas, generally found in the subordinate clause, and express it in an additional independent clause.

(Complex).—"The current was so strong that it carried the boat out to sea."

(Compound).—"The current was strong and it carried the boat out to sea."

(Complex).—"The fish, which fought hard, was finally caught in the net."

(Compound).—"The fish fought hard, but it was finally caught in the net."

Exercises

Change the following complex sentences to simple sentences without altering the meaning. Change the complex sentences to compound sentences without altering the meaning. Tell why your sentences are simple. Tell why they are compound:

1. Water which is salty is unfit to drink.
2. Louisiana Territory, which was purchased in 1803, gave the United States that vast region west of the Mississippi.
3. New Orleans, which is on the Mississippi River, controls much of the trade along its banks.
4. The shell which is on the beach was washed up by the ocean.
5. Fulton's steamboat, which was called the Clermont, passed slowly down the Hudson.
6. The Quakers, who came from Europe, settled in Pennsylvania.
7. The lumber, which was cut near the mountains, was shipped by rail to the large cities.
8. Mother was pleased when I was promoted.
9. The house, which was built of cement, was the only one of that kind in the village.
10. Dorothy, who was playing with her toys, was still in bed.

5. Compound Sentences Changed to Complex and Simple Sentences

Compound Changed to a Complex Sentence

To change a compound sentence to a complex sentence change one of the members to a clause; as,

(Compound).—"Alexander conquered the world and then sighed for more worlds to conquer."

(Complex).—"After he had conquered the world, Alexander sighed for more worlds to conquer."

Compound Changed to a Simple Sentence

To change a compound sentence to a simple sentence change one of the members to a phrase or a single word; as,

(Compound).—"The rain fell all morning and it refreshed the grass."

(Simple).—"The rain, falling all morning, refreshed the grass."

Exercises

Change the following compound sentences to complex sentences without altering the thought. Tell why your sentences are complex.

Change the compound sentences to simple sentences without altering the thought. Tell why your sentences are simple:

1. The wind blew at a great rate and soon tore the flag from the pole.
2. The horse ran away, but it was soon caught by the driver.
3. The seed was planted early and it soon began to send out shoots.
4. The automobile was going forty miles an hour, and it ran off the road just at the turn.
5. The library was provided by the children of the school and they used it frequently.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES

Directions.—1. Select the proper word or words in italic and give your reasons. When necessary, rearrange the sentence to express the meaning clearly. 2. Name the subject and the predicate in each of the following sentences after selecting the proper word. Name the

single word modifiers in each sentence. Are they adjective or adverbial? Name the phrases. Are they adjective or adverbial? Name the clauses. How are they used? Name the connectives. Name the independent words. 3. Parse the words in each sentence.

1

1. John writes *pretty* (*prettily*). 2. I *saw* (*seen*) him do it. 3. The train of our ideas *are* (*is*) often interrupted. 4. *Was* (*were*) you present at the last meeting? 5. He has *went* (*gone*) home. 6. *Him* (*he*) whom they seek is in the house. 7. George or I *is* (*are*) the person. 8. They or he *is* (*are*) much to be blamed. 9. The troop *consist* (*consists*) of fifty men. 10. *Those* (*that*) set of books was a valuable present.

2

1. The pillar is sixty *foot* (*feet*) high. 2. His conduct showed *the most extreme* (*extreme*) vanity. 3. These trees are *remarkable* (*remarkably*) tall. 4. He acted *bolder* (*more boldly*) than was expected. 5. This is he *who* (*whom*) I gave the book to. 6. Did he speak *soft* (*softly*)? 7. *Who* (*whom*) do you lodge with now? 8. The Select Council *was* (*were*) not unanimous in its opinion. 9. I know not *whom* (*who*) else are expected. 10. Her father and *her* (*she*) were at church.

3

1. The master requested him and *I* (*me*) to read more distinctly. 2. It is no more *but* (*than*) his due. 3. He writes *nice* (*nicely*). 4. John told the same story *which* (*that*) you did. 5. This is the largest tree *which* (*that*) I have ever seen. 6. Let *he* (*him*) and *I* (*me*) read the next chapter. 7. *Those* (*that*) sort of dealings is unjust. 8. David the son of Jesse was the youngest of *his brothers* (*the children*). 9. You *was* (*were*) very kind to him, he said. 10. Well, said I, what *does* (*dost*) thou think of him now?

4

1. James is one of those boys that *was* (*were*) kept in at school for bad behavior. 2. Thou, James, *did* (*didst*) deny the deed. 3. Neither good nor evil *come* (*comes*) of itself. 4. We need not *to be* (*be*) afraid. 5. Neither the crew nor the captain *was* (*were*) saved. 6. You should have *drank* (*drunk*) goat's milk. 7. It was *him* (*he*) who spoke first. 8. Is it *me* (*I*) that you mean? 9. *Who* (*whom*) did you buy your grammar from? 10. He was hurt *badly* (*bad*).

5

1. Neither the man nor the woman *were* (*was*) present. 2. I am *more taller* (*taller*) than you. 3. She is the same lady *who* (*that*) sang so sweetly. 4. After the *most strictest* (*strictest*) notions of the sect, I lived a hermit. 5. There *was* (*were*) more sophists than one. 6. I *done* (*did*) the work. 7. If the officer or his secretary made the mistake *they* (*he*) should be censured. 8. (Determination) I *shall* (*will*) go. 9. When they had *went* (*gone*) out, they saw no man there except the farmer. 10. All of *which* (*what*) we hope for is sometimes denied us.

6

1. I *have* (*had*) written to father asking him to let me stay another week. 2. The girl's book is *torn* (*tore*) in pieces. 3. It is not *me* (*I*) *who* (*whom*) he is in love with. 4. He *which* (*who*) commands himself, commands the whole world. 5. Nothing is *more lovelier* (*lovelier*) than virtue. 6. The carriage runs *light* (*lightly*). 7. Changed to a *worser* (*worse*) shape thou canst not be. 8. I have drunk no liquors *this* (*these*) six years. 9. He is taller than *me* (*I*), but I am stronger than *him* (*he*). 10. There was no chance of *me* (*my*) being elected.

7

1. After *who* (*whom*) is the King of Israel come out? 2. The reciprocations of love and friendship between *he*

(*him*) and *I* (*me*) have been many and sincere. 3. Abuse of mercies *ripen* (*ripens*) us for judgment. 4. Peter and John *is* (*are*) not at school to-day. 5. Three of them *was* (*were*) taken into custody. 6. To study diligently and behave genteelly *is* (*are*) commendable. 7. The enemies *who* (*whom*) we have most to fear are those of our own hearts. 8. *Was* (*were*) you there? 9. Surely you who *reads* (*read*) so much in the Bible, can tell me what became of Elijah. 10. Neither the master nor the scholars *is* (*are*) reading.

8

1. Trust not him *whom* (*who*) you know is dishonest. 2. I have no interests but *that* (*those*) of truth and virtue. 3. Every imagination of the thoughts of his heart *are* (*is*) evil. 4. No one can be blamed for taking due care of *their* (*his* or *her*) health. 5. The product of the silver mines of Mexico and Peru far *exceed* (*exceeds*) those of Europe and Asia. 6. Miss Brown *teached* (*taught*) the lesson. 7. *He* (*him*) that is diligent you should commend. 8. There was an earthquake which made the earth *tremble* (*to tremble*). 9. I gave him *a* (*an*) orange. 10. This looks *nicely* (*nice*).

9

1. They ride faster than *us* (*we*). 2. Was it *him* (*he*) who came last? Yes, it was *him* (*he*). 3. I shall take care that no one shall suffer (*no*) injury. 4. Every man should act *suitable* (*suitably*) to his character and station in life. 5. His arguments were *clear* (*clearly*). 6. I *only* spoke (*only*) three words on that subject. 7. The ant and the bee *sets* (*set*) a good example for lazy boys. 8. Both candidates are popular, and it is quite doubtful *who* (*whom*) the people will select for the office. 9. Let every chair, every book, and every slate be put in *their places* (*its place*). 10. The trial is over and the jury *have* (*has*) rendered a verdict of guilty.

10

1. Evil communications *corrupts* (*corrupt*) good manners. 2. Hannibal was one of the greatest generals *whom* (*that*) the world ever saw. 3. The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for (*the*) gaining of wisdom. 4. I do not have *nothing* (*anything*). 5. His principal amusement and occupation *were* (*was*) reading. 6. My exercises are not well *wrote* (*written*). 7. Grammar teaches us to speak *proper* (*properly*). 8. She accused her companion *for* (*of*) having betrayed her. 9. I will not dissent *with* (*from*) her. 10. *Who* (*whom*) shall I give it to?

11

1. *Who* (*whom*) are you looking for? 2. Every one of the boys tore *their* (*his*) clothes. 3. That picture of the *emperor's* (*emperor*) is a good resemblance of him. 4. Everything that we here enjoy *change* (*changes*) and *come* (*comes*) to an end. 5. It is not *him* (*he*) they blame so much. 6. No people *has* (*have*) more faults than they that pretend to have none. 7. The laws of Draco *is* (*are*) said to have been *wrote* (*written*) with blood. 8. It is so clear *as* (*that*) I need not explain it. 9. She taught him and *I* (*me*) to read. 10. Either John or Howard will be hurt if *they jump* (*he jump*).

12

1. Neither he nor I *has* (*have*) the books. 2. He does not like *those* (*that*) kind. 3. His being at enmity with Cæsar and Antony *were* (*was*) the cause of perpetual discord. 4. The committee presented *its* (*their*) report. 5. He died *by* (*of*) a fever. 6. To beg is harder than *working* (*to work*). 7. He sells *men, women, and children's* (*men's, women's, and children's*) shoes. 8. Frequent commission of crimes *harden* (*hardens*) the heart. 9. The pyramids of Egypt *has* (*have*) stood more than three thousand years. 10. Read the *two last* (*last two*) lines in the stanza.

13

1. She and you were not mistaken in *her* (*your*) conjectures. 2. My sister and I, as well as my brother, are employed in *their* (*our*) respective occupations. 3. Neither Dorothy nor Mildred *are* (*is*) here. 4. It was *me* (*I*), and not *him* (*he*), that wrote it. 5. Art thou *him* (*he*)? 6. Neither the mast *or* (*nor*) the sail was injured. 7. The tree was *shook* (*shaken*) by the boy. 8. To do to others as we would that they should do to us (*it*) is our duty. 9. She is *exceeding* (*exceedingly*) fair. 10. The council *was* (*were*) not unanimous.

14

1. Who spilt the ink upon the table? *Him* (*He*). 2. Who lost this book? *Me* (*I*). 3. Whose pen is this? *Johns* (*John's*). 4. She behaved *good* (*well*). 5. *Sit* (*set*) the chair here. 6. That is the fort *which* (*what*) Frank built. 7. A prudent wife (*she*) shall be blessed. 8. What was the cause of *John* (*John's*) being late? 9. James resolved (*not*) to *not* indulge in such a cruel amusement. 10. The *vicious* (*viciously*) inclined dog was shot before he had bit any of the children.

15

1. The secretary and treasurer, Mr. Brown, *is* (*are*) absent. 2. Martha and Marion are here; I saw *her* (*them*). 3. He *done* (*did*) well. 4. (Simple futurity) I *will* (*shall*) attend to the matter to-day. 5. The boy *run* (*ran*) after the wagon. 6. The picture of the *king's* (*king*) does not resemble him. 7. The play was done *beauitfully* (*beautiful*). 8. She invited Jane and *I* (*me*) to see the dress. 9. He was the *most strictest* (*strictest*) teacher we had. 10. They contributed more than *we* (*us*).

SPECIAL EXERCISES

Take any one of the foregoing sentences and expand it by adding to any or all of its modifying elements other modifying elements, single words, phrases, and clauses.

Take any one of the sentences and, using the same words, write it in as many different forms as possible, without destroying its primary meaning.

Take any one of the sentences and express the same thought without using any of the words given.

Change the character of any of the sentences by turning simple sentences to complex sentences, and complex sentences to compound.

Change compound sentences to complex, and complex sentences to simple.

Change declarative sentences to the interrogative and to the negative form.

Change the voices of transitive verbs and rearrange the sentences.

Change the mode and tense of the verbs in a sentence, and rearrange the sentence.

FOURTH PART

PROSODY

Prosody treats of PUNCTUATION, FIGURES OF SPEECH, UTTERANCE, and VERSIFICATION.

PUNCTUATION

Punctuation is the art of dividing written discourse into sections by means of points, for the purpose of showing the grammatical connection and dependence, and of making the sense more obvious.

Capitals are used for a like purpose, and, therefore, they may with propriety be treated of at the same time with the points.

The principal grammatical points are five:

1. The COMMA, ,
2. The SEMICOLON, ;
3. The COLON, :
4. The PERIOD, .
5. The INTERROGATION, ?

Besides the five points named, other characters are used for similar purposes. The most common of these are the following:

The Exclamation, !
The Dash, —
The Parentheses, ( )
The Bracket, [ ]
The Quotation Marks, " "
The Apostrophe, '
The Hyphen, -

Capitals

The following are the principal rules for the use of capital letters:

1. Begin with a capital the first word of every sentence:
"The wind blew with great force."

2. Begin with a capital the first word of every direct quotation. The indirect quotation does not require a capital:

(Direct).—Plutarch says, "Lying is the vice of slaves."
(Indirect).—"Plutarch says that lying is the vice of slaves."

3. Begin with a capital the first word of every line of poetry:

"The quality of mercy is not strained,
It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
Upon the place beneath."

4. Begin with a capital every proper noun, every proper adjective, the names of the religious sects, and the names of the political parties; as, Lutherans, Catholics, Jews, Republicans, Whigs, Spanish, and French.

"The American people are usually in a hurry."
"Daniel Webster was a great orator."
"Augustine was a voluminous Christian writer."
"The Democrats nominated him."

5. Begin with a capital the points of the compass when used to denote certain parts of the country. When used to denote merely geographical direction, they should begin with a small letter.

"This man evidently is a native of the West."

"Ohio lies west of Pennsylvania."

6. Begin with a capital the names of the days of the week, the months of the year, and the holidays:

"He came on Monday."

"June is the month of roses."

"Good Friday was celebrated with much solemnity."

7. Begin with a capital every important word in the titles of books, essays, compositions, and poems, and of titles of office or honor; as,

The President of the United States; His Honor, the Mayor of Philadelphia; President Madison; Sir William Pitt.

"Spark's Life of Washington was purchased."

"Senator Beveridge was the orator of the day."

"James took as his subject, 'The Story of a Penny.'"

8. Begin with a capital every name and title of God, and every pronoun referring to God; as, Jehovah, Father, Creator.

"The Lord is a great God above all gods."

9. Begin with a capital the name of anything strongly personified:

"Hope for a season bade the world farewell,
And Freedom shrieked as Kosciusko fell."

10. Begin with a capital the pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*.

"You and I must go."

11. Begin with a capital phrases or clauses that are separately numbered:

"This writer asserts: 1. That nature is unlimited in her operations; 2. That she has inexhaustible treasures in

reserve; 3. That knowledge will always be progressive, and, 4. That all future generations will continue to make discoveries."

12. Begin with a capital the names of the important events or epochs in history; as, the Reformation, the Middle Ages.

"The American Revolution brought forth many heroes."

The Comma

The principal rules for the use of the comma are as follows:

1. A comma is used to separate a short quotation or the parts of a divided quotation from the rest of the sentence:

"The President said, 'I will sign the bill.'"
"James asked, 'Who is there?'"
"A good maxim is, 'Deeds are greater than words.'"
"Yes," said the hero, "it was very dangerous."

2. A comma is used to separate from one another the words, phrases, or clauses in a series, unless the conjunction is expressed:

"John, Howard, Mildred, Martha and Dorothy were present."
"Running, rowing and swimming are healthful exercises."
"The boys ran, jumped and skipped."
"Love for study, a desire to do right and carefulness in the choice of friends are important traits of character."

3. A comma is used after each pair in words or phrases in pairs:

"Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, desolation and ruin are the consequences of civil war."
"Eating or drinking, laboring or sleeping, let us do all in moderation."

4. Commas are used to separate the noun, phrase, or clause in apposition from the rest of the sentence:

"Webster, the orator, was a great American statesman."

"Homer, the greatest of poets among the ancients, was blind."

5. A comma or commas are used to separate the name of a person addressed from the rest of the sentence:

"John, come here."

"I beg, sir, to acknowledge the favor."

"I believe, Mr. President, that the resolution should be adopted."

6. A comma is used to indicate the omission of the verb:

"Reading maketh a full man; conference, a ready man; writing, an exact man.

7. A comma is used to separate introductory adverbial clauses from the rest of the sentence:

"If I can, I will go."

"Though he slay me, yet will I love him."

8. Commas are used to separate the relative clause when *not* restrictive from the rest of the sentence.

An expression is restrictive when it limits the meaning of some particular word or words in some particular sense.

"Mr. Brown, who was in the city last month, is here again."

"Joseph, who happened to be in the field at the time, ran to meet the carriage."

(Restrictive).—"Bring the book that is on the table."

9. A comma or commas are used to separate a parenthetical word or group of words from the rest of the sentence.

A word or group of words is parenthetical when it is not essential to the meaning and structure of the sentence in which it stands.

Some parenthetical words and groups of words are:

accordingly	hence	in short	of course
after all	however	in truth	secondly
as it were	in a word	moreover	therefore
consequently	in brief	namely	to be brief
finally	indeed	no doubt	to be sure

"In truth, I must say that he is not capable."
"However, he came very late."
"Finally, the officer proceeded to execute the order."

10. A comma is used to separate a subject which is very long and complicated from the predicate:

"That he was guilty of the serious crime and that he would be severely sentenced, was clear to all his friends."

11. Commas are used to separate from each other the members of a continued sentence, if the members are simple in construction:

"Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them."

12. A comma or commas are frequently used to separate the adjective phrase from the rest of the sentence:

"Flocks of birds, blinded by the light, dashed themselves to death against the glass."
"The stag, hemmed in by his pursuers, fought bravely."
"Having finished his work, he went home."

13. A comma is used to separate the absolute phrase from the rest of the sentence:

"His father being dead, the prince ascended the throne."

The Semicolon

The semicolon marks a division of a sentence somewhat larger and more complex than that marked by the comma.

1. A semicolon is used to separate the members of a compound sentence when the members or either of them are themselves subdivided by commas:

"The look that is fixed on immortality wears not a perpetual smile; and eyes, through which shines the light of other worlds, are often dimmed with tears."

2. When several clauses or grammatical expressions of similar construction follow each other in a series, all having a common dependence upon some other clause, they are separated from each other by a semicolon, and from the clause on which they all depend, by a comma:

"Philosophers assert, that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries."

3. A semicolon is used to separate sentences that follow each other without grammatical dependence, but connected in meaning:

"She presses her child to her heart; she drowns it in her tears; her fancy catches more than an angel's tongue can describe."

4. A semicolon is used before *as, viz.* (namely), *to wit, i. e., e. g.,* when followed by examples. A comma is placed after the connecting word:

"Greece has given us three great historians; namely, Herodotus, Xenophon, and Thucydides."

5. A semicolon is used before an enumeration of particulars and the particulars are separated by commas:

"Pronominal adjectives are divided into three classes; Distributive, demonstrative, and indefinite."

If the expressions enumerating the particulars contain commas, then the particulars should be separated by semicolons and a colon should separate them from the general term:

"Pronominal adjectives are divided into three classes: First, the distributive, which are four in number; second, the demonstrative, which are four; and third, the indefinite, which are nine."

The Colon

The colon marks a division of a sentence more nearly complete than a semicolon.

1. The colon is used after the words introducing a direct quotation, especially a long quotation.

If the quotation is very short, a comma usually precedes it; if very long, it is frequently preceded by a colon and a dash.

(Short Simple Quotation).—Dr. Thomas Brown says, "The benevolent spirit is as universal as the miseries which are capable of being relieved."

(Long Quotation).—Speaking of party, Pope makes this remark: "There never was any party, faction, sect, or cabal whatsoever, in which the most ignorant were not the most violent."

(Very Long Complex Quotation).—At the close of the meeting, the president rose and said:—"Ladies and Gentlemen, it is with extreme reluctance that I address you on this occasion," etc.

2. When the members of a compound sentence contain a semicolon, the members should be separated by a colon:

"As we perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but not perceive it moving; and it appears that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of such insensible steps, are more perceivable by the distance."

3. A colon is used before an enumeration of particulars if the expressions naming the particulars contain commas. (Refer to Rule 5 of the Semicolon.)

The Period

1. A period is placed at the close of every declarative and every imperative sentence.

"The French captured the fort."
"Shut the door."

2. A period is used after all abbreviated words and after initial letters. (Refer to the List of Common Abbreviations.)

"Mr. Martin is down stairs."
"Howard F. Wilson, D.D., LL.D., was present at the meeting."

3. A period is placed after Roman numerals.

"James V. was the king to whom reference was made."

The Interrogation Point

An interrogation point is used after every direct question.

(Indirect).—"The teacher asked if I spoke."

(Direct).—"Did you speak?"
"The teacher said, 'Did you speak?'
"When will you come? This afternoon?"
"You will come this afternoon?"

The Exclamation Point

The exclamation point is used for marking strong emotion.

1. The exclamation point is used after every exclamatory word, phrase, clause, or sentence.

"O wretched state!"
"O bosom of black death!"
"Hurrah! We have won!"
"Ah me!"
"What a boy he is!"
"What wonders he performs!"
"Look out for that train!"
"Hark! is that the horn?"

2. When interjections are repeated several times, they are separated from each other by commas, the exclamation point being placed after the last; as, "Fie, fie, fie! pah, pah, pah! Give an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination!

The Dash

1. The dash is used chiefly to mark a sudden change or interruption in the structure or thought of the sentence:

"He was witty, learned, industrious, plausible—everything but honest."

"He had no malice in his mind—
No ruffles on his shirt."

"Was there ever a bolder captain of a more valiant band? Was there ever—but I scorn to boast."

2. The dash is used to mark the omission of letters or figures:

"General W——n captured the Hessians at Trenton."

"Matt. 9: 1–6." (This is equivalent to Matt. 9: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.)

3. The dash is used to separate questions and answers if run into a paragraph instead of beginning on separate lines:

"Who made you?—God." "What else did God make?—God made all things."

The Parentheses

The parentheses are used to enclose words inserted in the body of a sentence, and nearly or quite independent of the sentence in meaning and construction:

"While the Christian desires the approbation of his fellowmen (and why should he not desire it?), he disdains to receive their goodwill by dishonorable means."

Note 1.—We must distinguish between parenthesis and marks of parenthesis or parentheses. The paren-

thesis is the sentence or part of a sentence that is inserted into another sentence. The marks of parenthesis or the parentheses are the two curved lines ( ) which enclose the words thus let in.

Note 2.—Sometimes commas and sometimes dashes are used instead of the parentheses to enclose words that are of a parenthetical character, and it is not always easy to determine when to use one of these modes and when to use another. It may be observed, in general, that the parentheses mark the greatest degree of separation from the rest of the sentence; the dashes, the next greatest; and the commas, the least separation of all.

Brackets

Brackets are used to inclose in a sentence a word or words which do not form part of the original composition:

"A soft answer turn [turns] away wrath."

Note 1.—Brackets are usually used to enclose that which is inserted by one writer to correct or add to what has been written by another.

Note 2.—Brackets mark even a greater degree of separation of the matter inclosed from the rest of the sentence than that indicated by the parentheses.

Quotation Marks

1. Quotation marks are always used to inclose a direct quotation or each of the parts of a divided quotation:

(Direct).—Socrates said, "I believe the soul to be immortal."

"I," said Socrates, "believe the soul to be immortal."

(Indirect).—Socrates said that he believed the soul to be immortal.

A quotation is the introduction into one's discourse of a word or of words uttered by some one else.

A direct quotation is one in which the exact words of another person are quoted; while the indirect quotation is one in which the thought of another is expressed in language of one's own.

2. Single quotation marks are used to inclose a quotation within a quotation:

It has been well said, "The command, 'Thou shalt not kill,' forbids many crimes besides that of murder."

Some one has said, "What an argument for prayer is contained in the words 'Our Father which art in heaven'!"

3. Quotation marks are used to enclose titles of books, magazines, essays, etc., when introduced into the body of a sentence and not distinguished by a change of type.

He was a contributor to "The Atlantic Monthly."

"The Tempest" is regarded by some as one of Shakespeare's earliest plays.

The Apostrophe

1. The apostrophe is used to denote the omission of a letter or of letters from words; as, *Isn't, can't, I've, let's, e'er.*

"Can't you come."

"Let's go very early."

2. The apostrophe is used to mark the possessive case of nouns; as, *John's, horse's, women's, Jones's, ladies'.*

"John's hat was lost."

"The horse's hoof was split."

3. The apostrophe is used to form the plural of letters, figures, and other marks; as, *7's, 9's, x's, I's.*

"There were five 7's in that line of figures."

The Hyphen

1. The hyphen is used to join the parts of some compound words; as, court-martial, father-in-law, man-of-war, sergeant-at-arms.

2. The hyphen is used to indicate the division of a word at the end of a line. The division in such instances should be made only at the end of a syllable.

Exercises

Whenever necessary, insert marks of punctuation in the following sentences. In each instance give the reason. Make all necessary corrections regarding capitals, giving your reasons for each alteration:

1. Gentleness is in truth the great avenue to real enjoyment
2. The locomotive bellows as it were from the fury of passion
3. He went home accordingly and arranged his business in the manner described
4. There are in truth only two things to be considered namely his honesty and his ability
5. No nation in short is free from danger
6. But on the other hand do not suppose that there is no use in trying
7. Besides it may be of the greatest importance to you in your business
8. Classical studies regarded merely as a means of culture are deserving of general attention
9. The sun with all its train of attendant planets is but a small and inconsiderable portion of the universe
10. Charity on whatever side we contemplate it is one of the highest christian graces
11. One hour a day steadily given to a particular study will bring in time large accumulations
12. If you would succeed in business be punctual in observing your engagements
13. The days in december you know are at their shortest and therefore you must rise by the dawn if you would have much daylight
14. The good which you do may not be lost though it may be forgotten

15. We should in all probability be ashamed of much that we boast of could the world see our real motive

16. A fierce spirit of rivalry which is at all times a dangerous passion had now taken full possession of him

17. The spirit which actuated him was a thirst for vengeance

18. The man of letters who has constantly before him examples of excellence ought himself to be a pattern of excellence

19. Patriotism consists in loving the country in which we are born

20. Civil war is an awful evil of which however history furnishes many examples

21. The powers which now move the world are the printing-press and the telegraph

22. America may well boast of her Washington whose character and fame are the common property of the world

23. Crafty men contemn studies simple men admire them and wise men use them

24. Speak as you mean do as you profess perform what you promise

25. Cæsar was dead the senators were dispersed all Rome was in confusion

26. Love for study a desire to do right and carefulness in the choice of friends are important traits of character

27. To cleanse our opinions from falsehood our hearts from malignity and our actions from vice is our chief concern

28. Aright aleft above below he whirled the rapid sword

29. The address was beautifully elegantly and forcibly written.

30. We are fearfully wonderfully made

31. Truth and integrity kindness and modesty reverence and devotion were all remarked in him

32. The poor and the rich the weak and the strong the young and the old have one common Father

33. We the people of the united states do hereby ordain and establish this Constitution

34. Virgil the chief poet among the romans was fond of rural life

35. The chief work of Chaucer Canterbury tales suggested to longfellow the plan of his work tales of a wayside inn

36. Accept my dear young friends this expression of my regard

37. Remember sir you cannot have it

38. I being in the way the Lord led me to the house of my master's brother

39. To supply the deficiency he resorted to a shameful trick

40. Living in filth the poor cease to respect one another

41. To confess the truth I never greatly admired him

42. Homer was the greater genius Virgil the better artist

43. Semiramis built babylon Dido carthage and Romulus rome

44. Patrick Henry began his celebrated speech by saying It is natural to man to indulge the illusions of hope

45. A good rule in education is Learn to be slow in forming your opinions

46. I say There is no such thing as human perfection

47. Some one justly remarks It is a great loss to lose an affliction

48. Sparre the dutch general was sulky and perverse because according to Lord Mahon he was a citizen of a republic

49. You may quit the field of business though not the field of danger and though you cannot be safe you may cease to be ridiculous

50. To give an early preference to honor above gain when they stand in competition to despise every advantage which cannot be attained without dishonest acts to brook no meanness and to stoop to no dissimulations are the indications of a great mind

51. Stones grow vegetables grow and live animals grow live and feel

52. The summer is over and gone the winter is here with its frost and snow the wind howls in the chimney at night the beast in the forest forsakes its lair the birds of the air seek the habitation of men

53. The temples are profaned the soldier's oath resounds in the house of God the marble pavement is trampled by iron hoofs horses neigh beside the altar

54. Some writers divide the history of the world into four ages viz the golden age the silver age the bronze age and the iron age

55. Cicero in his treatise on morals enumerates four cardinal virtues to wit Fortitude Temperance Justice and Prudence

56. Melissa like the bee gathers honey from every weed while Arachne like the spider sucks poison from the fairest flowers

57. Are these to be conquered by all Europe united No sir no united nation can be that has the spirit to resolve not to be conquered

58. The discourse consisted of two parts in the first was shown the necessity of exercise in the second the advantages that would result from it

59. The laws of Phoroneus were established 1807 b c those of Lycurgis 884 b c of Draco 623 b c of Solon 587 b c

60. Bought on 9 mos credit the following articles 4 yds of broadcloth at $12 a yd 6 gals 1 pt 2 gi of vinegar at 65 cts a gal and 3½ cords of wood at $7.50 a cord

61. Dryden's page is a natural field rising into inequalities and diversified by the varied exuberance of abundant vegetation Pope's is a velvet lawn shaven by the scythe and levelled by the roller

62. Charge Chester charge on Stanley on

63. Almost all kinds of raw material extracted from the interior of the earth metals coals precious stones and the like are obtained from mines differing in fertility

64. Greece Carthage Rome where are they

65. I plunged right into the debate but did not say a word to the point of course said Mr. Wilson

66. Are you still I fear you are far from being comfortably settled

67. Know then this truth enough for man to know
Virtue alone is happiness below

68. The egyptian style of architecture see Dr. Pocock not his discourses but his prints was apparently the mother of the greek

69. This definition dr lathan from whom we borrowed it illustrates in his work on the English Language p 359 by the expression a sharp-edged instrument which means an instrument with sharp edges

70. There is but one object says Augustine greater than the soul and that one is its Creator

71. Let me make the ballads of a nation said fletcher of saltoun and I care not who makes the laws

72. When Fenelon's library was on fire God be praised said he that it is not the dwelling of a poor man

73. Charles notwithstanding the delay had left england to work his way as best he might out of his Difficulties

74. the scots therefore at the break of day entered the Castle

75. besides if you labor in moderation it will conduce to Health as well as to Wealth

76. The Man when He saw this departed

77. The frost had set in the low damp ground was hard the Dykes were frozen

78. she thought the isle that gave her birth
the sweetest mildest land on earth

79. Well St. Nicholas what news

80. Thus preciously freighted the spanish fleet sailed from corunna

81. Faith is opposed to infidelity hope to despair charity to enmity and hostility

82. Elizabeth threw herself in front of Marie Antoinette exclaiming I am the queen

83. Kant said give me matter and I will build the world

84. in his last Moments He uttered these words i fall a sacrifice to sloth and luxury

85. Bacon Francis usually known as Lord bacon was born in london england jan 22 1560 and died 1626 he was famous as a scholar a wit a lawyer a judge a statesman a politician but chiefly as a philosopher

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FIGURES OF SPEECH

A **Figure of Speech** of rhetoric is a deviation from the proper and literal *meaning* of a word or phrase to make the language more effective.

The following are the principal Figures of Speech of rhetoric: *Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Personification, Apostrophe, Antithesis, Metonymy, Synecdoche, Interrogation, Exclamation, Hyperbole, Irony.*

Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Personification are founded upon resemblance.

Apostrophe, Metonymy, Synecdoche, Hyperbole, Irony are based upon association.

A **Simile** is a formal comparison between two objects, expressed by the words *like, as,* or *so.* Thus, we can say of a horse "He is as *swift* as the *wind*"; of a man, "He is as *firm* as a *rock.*"

Description or Explanation.—"He (horse) is as swift as the wind." This is a simile because it is a comparison of the two objects, *horse* and *wind,* by the use of the sign of comparison *as. Horse* and *wind* are compared in regard to *swiftness.*

A **Metaphor** expresses a resemblance between two objects without the sign of comparison *like, as,* or *so;* thus, "Thy word is a lamp to my feet and a light to my path." A metaphor implies a comparison, and differs from a simile only in form, the sign of comparison being omitted. Thus, when I say "A hero is *like* a lion," I

use a simile; but when I say "A hero *is* a lion," I employ a metaphor.

Description or Explanation.—"Thy word is a lamp to my feet." This is a metaphor because it is a comparison of the two objects, *word* and *lamp*, without the sign of comparison *like*, *as*, or *so*. *Word* and *lamp* are compared in regard to the power to *guide* or *direct*.

An **Allegory** is a description of one thing under the image of another: it is a sort of continued metaphor.

The following from the 80th Psalm is a beautiful allegory, in which the Jewish nation is represented under the symbol of a vine: "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt; thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it; and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it; and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars. It sent out its boughs into the sea and its branches into the river. Why hast thou broken down its hedges, so that all they who pass by the way do pluck it? The boar out of the wood doth waste it, and the wild beast of the field doth devour it."

Personification is that figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, "The *thirsty* ground," "The *angry* ocean," "The mountains *saw* Thee, O Lord, and they *trembled*."

Description or Explanation.—"The *thirsty* ground." This is a personification because life and action is given to the inanimate object, *ground*. *Ground* is given the power of being *thirsty;* a quality which belongs only to persons or things with life.

Apostrophe is a turning off from the subject of discourse to address some other person or thing; as, "It advances, and with menacing aspect slides into the heart of the city—*O my country! ah! Ilium, the habitation of the gods!*" Personification and apostrophe so nearly coincide that they are frequently confounded. The former, however, consists in giving life to inanimate objects, and the

latter in abruptly addressing objects thus animated, or persons that are dead or absent.

Description or Explanation—"It advances, and with menacing aspect slides into the heart of the city—O my country! ah! Ilium, the habitation of the gods!" This is an apostrophe because the author has abruptly turned aside from the subject of discourse to address his *country*.

Metonymy (change of names) is not founded on resemblance, but on some other relation, such as cause and effect, effect and cause, sign and thing signified, container and thing contained. Thus, 1. The cause for the effect, or the author for his works; as, "I am reading *Virgil*"; that is, his *works*. 2. The effect for the cause; as, "*Gray hairs* should be respected"; that is, *old age*. 3. The container for the thing contained; as, "The *kettle* boils," meaning the *water*. 4. The sign for the thing signified; as, "He assumes the *sceptre*"; that is, "He assumes the *sovereignty*."

A **Synedoche** is a figure by which the whole is put for a part or a part for the whole, a definite for an indefinite number, etc.; as, "*Man* returns to the dust," meaning only his *body;* "He earns his *bread*," meaning *all the necessaries* of life.

A **Hyperbole** is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse than they are in reality; thus, David, speaking of Saul and Jonathan says, "They were *swifter than eagles*, they were *stronger than lions*." "The waves ran *mountains high*." Hyperbole is an exaggeration of the truth.

Irony is a figure by which we express ourselves in a manner contrary to our thoughts, not with a view to deceive, but to add force to our observations. Thus, the prophet Elijah, in challenging the priests of Baal to prove the truth of their deity, ironically says, "Cry aloud, for he is a god; either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked."

Interrogation is a question put, not to get an answer, but to express our own opinions more strongly. Thus, "The Lord is not a man that he should lie, neither the son of man, that he should repent. *Hath he said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it, and shall he not make it good?*"

Exclamation is used to express agitated feeling, admiration, wonder, surprise, anger, joy, etc.; thus, "O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!"

Antithesis consists in putting two unlike things in juxtaposition, that each will appear more striking by the contrast; as, "The prodigal robs his heir; the miser robs himself."

Exercises

In the following examples, select, define, and explain each figure of speech:

"This is the ship of pearl, which, poets feign,
Sails the unshadowed main,—
The venturous bark that flings
On the sweet summer wind its purpled wings
In gulfs enchanted, where the Siren sings,
And coral reefs lie bare,
Where the cold sea-maids rise to sun their streaming hair."—*O. W. Holmes.*

"Can storied urn or animated bust
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?
Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or Flattery soothe the dull cold ear of death?"
Gray.

"There Honor comes, a pilgrim gray,
To deck the turf that wraps their clay."—*Collins.*

"I wandered lonely as a cloud
That floats on high o'er vales and hills."
Wordsworth.

"Errors, like straws, upon the surface flow,
He who would search for pearls must dive below."

Man, like the generous vine, supported, lives.
The Lord is my Shepherd.
The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold.
The sceptre shall not depart from Judah.
The chair decided the motion out of order.
In the preliminary contest, the crown was sustained.
They drank one bottle of wine.
He was invited to tea.
Plate sin with gold, and the strong lance of justice, shivering, breaks; clothe it in rags, and a pigmy's straw doth pierce it.
A sail passed in the distance.
His gold could not save his life.
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.
The sky saddens with the gathering storm.
To obtain soldiers for the army, Spain robbed the cradle and the grave.
Their furrow oft the stubborn glebe has broke.
The state was tottering to its fall.
Have you read Shakespeare?
His thoughts were shallow.
The pen is mightier than the sword.
Twenty sail were counted in the bay.
No doubt but ye are the people, and wisdom shall die with you.
I will talk of things past or things to come.
And Brutus was an honorable man.

"The farmer sat in his easy chair,
Smoking his pipe of clay."

"O Death! where is thy sting?
O Grave! where is thy victory?"

"She gathers up her robes of green and gold,
The fair sweet summer; and across the land
We see her go, with outward reaching hand."

UTTERANCE

Utterance comprises the Articulation of Letters, the Pronounciation of Words, and the Delivery of Sentences.

ARTICULATION

The proper articulation of letters can be acquired only by a thorough practice in all the sounds of all the letters. From a neglect of this practice arise such errors as mumbling, lisping, slurring, hesitating, and stammering.

PRONUNCIATION

The utterance of words taken separately depends largely on the sounds or powers of the letters composing the word, the place and power of the Accent, and the Quantity of the syllable.

Accent is a stress of the voice, placed on a particular syllable in a word, by which that syllable is distinguished from the rest; as, pre′fix, disturb′.

The **Quantity** of the syllable is the time required to pronounce it. Quantity is either *long* or *short*.

The quantity of a syllable is long when the accent is on the vowel; as, gave, wise, make. The quantity of a syllable is short when the accent is on the consonant; as, last, not, pin.

THE DELIVERY OF SENTENCES—ELOCUTION

The proper delivery of a sentence or discourse is based upon a knowledge of Emphasis, Pause, Inflection, and Tone.

Emphasis is a stress of voice laid upon a particular word, distinguishing it from the rest of the sentence.

Pause is a measurable cessation of the voice during reading or speaking. Pauses are restful to the reader, and, in connection with emphasis and inflection, they

enable the hearer to grasp the thought and emotion of the discourse in its greatest extent.

Inflection is that variation of the voice by which it passes from one key or pitch to another.

There are three inflections: the *Rising*, when the voice passes to a higher key; the *Falling*, when it passes to a lower key; and the *Circumflex*, when both are combined in the same word.

Tone is that modulation of the voice by which we express our varying sentiments and emotions.

VERSIFICATION

Versification is the arrangement of words into poetical lines or verses.

I. Verses

A **poetical line** or **verse** consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to fixed rules. It was originally called *verse*, from the Latin *verto*, "I turn," because when we have finished one line, we *turn* back to commence another.

A **couplet** consists of two successive lines rhyming together.

A **triplet** consists of three successive lines rhyming together.

A **stanza** is a combination of several lines, varying in number according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem or song. The word *verse*, which strictly means only a single line, is often incorrectly used for stanza.

Rhyme is, for the most part, the correspondence of the last sound of one line to the last sound of another.

Blank verse is the name given to that species of poetry which is without rhyme.

II. Feet

Feet are the smaller portions into which a line or verse is divided. They are called feet because by their aid the voice steps along, as it were, through the verse in a measured pace.

The syllables which mark this regular movement of the voice should, in some manner, be distinguished from the others. This distinction was made among the ancient Romans by dividing their syllables into long and short; and the long syllables, being the more important, marked the movement. In English, syllables are, for this purpose, divided into accented and unaccented; the accented syllables, which show the movement, are distinguished by the mark of a *long* syllable, and the unaccented by the mark of a *short* syllable.

The feet ordinarily used in English poetry are four in number; two of two syllables, and two of three syllables.

Feet of Two Syllables

1. An Iambus ⏑ –; as, dĕfēnd.
2. A Trochee – ⏑; as, nōblĕ.

Feet of Three Syllables

3. An Anapæst ⏑ ⏑ –; as, ĭntĕrcēde.
4. A Dactyl – ⏑ ⏑; as, vīrtŭoŭs.

III. Kinds of Verse

The kind of verse to which any piece of poetry belongs depends upon the kind of foot by which it is chiefly formed. Hence it is styled *Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic,* or *Dactylic verse,* according as the prevailing foot is an Iambus, a Trochee, an Anapæst, or a Dactyl.

Each of these kinds of verse is subdivided according to the number of feet or meters in a line. A line consisting of only one foot is called a *Monometer;* of two feet, a *Dimeter;* of three feet, a *Trimeter;* of four feet, a *Tetra-*

meter; of five feet, a *Pentameter;* of six feet, a *Hexameter.* There being thus six different lengths for each of the four kinds of verse, we have in all twenty-four varieties. These are exhibited in the following tables:

I. IAMBIC

1.—*Monometer,* | ⏑ – |
| ăwāke |

2.—*Dimeter,* | ⏑ – | ⏑ – |
| tŏ mē | thĕ rōse |

3.—*Trimeter,* | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – |
| ĭn plā | cĕs fār | ănd nēar |

4.—*Tetrameter,* | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – |
| ănd māy | ăt lāst | mў wēa | rў āge |

5.—*Pentameter,* | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – |
| hŏw lōved | hŏw vāl | uĕd ōnce | ăvaĭls | thĕe nōt |

6.—*Hexameter,* | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – |
| thў reālm | fōrēv | ĕr lāsts | thў ōwn | Mĕssī | ăh rēigns |

2. TROCHAIC

1.—*Monometer,* | – ⏑ |
| mĕrcў |

2.—*Dimeter,* | – ⏑ | – ⏑ |
| ōn thĕ | mōuntaĭn |

3.—*Trimeter,* | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ |
| whēn oŭr | hēarts ăre | mōurnĭng |

4.—*Tetrameter,* | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ |
| lōvelў | Thāĭs | sīts bĕ | sīde thĕe |

5.—*Pentameter,* | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ |
| Sātўrs | bў thĕ | brōoklĕt | lōve tŏ | dāllў |

6.—*Hexameter,* | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ | – ⏑ |
| ōn ă | mōuntaĭn | strētched bĕ | nēath ă | hōarў | wīllŏw |

3. ANAPÆSTIC

1.—*Monometer,* | ⏑ ⏑ – |
| rēfērēe |

2.—*Dimeter,* | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – |
| ŏn thĕ plaĭn | ăs hĕ strōde |

3.—*Trimeter,* | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – |
| I woŭld hīde | wĭth thĕ bēasts | ŏf thĕ chāse |

4.—*Tetrameter,* | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – |
| whĕn rēpō | sĭng thăt nĭght | ŏn mў pāl | lĕt ŏf strāw |

5.—*Pentameter,*
| ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – |
| ŏn thĕ wārm | chĕek ŏf yoŭth | thĕ gāy smīle | ănd thĕ rōse | ĕvĕr blēnd |

6.—*Hexameter,*
| ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – | ⏑ ⏑ – |
| bŭt thĕ leāves | ăre bĕgĭn | nĭng tŏ wīth | ĕr ănd drōop | ănd thĕy dīe | ĭn ă dāy |

4. DACTYLIC

1.—*Monometer*, | - ◡◡ |
| mērcĭfūl |
2.—*Dimeter*, | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ |
| tāke hĕr ŭp | tēndĕrlў |
3.—*Trimeter*, | - ◡◡ | - ◡◡ | - ◡ ◡ |
| wēarў ănd | wōrn shĕ ă | wāitĕd thĕe |
4.—*Tetrameter*, | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡◡ | - ◡ ◡ |
| făděd thĕ | vāpŏrs thăt | sēemed tŏ ĕn | cōmpăss hĭm |
5.—*Pentameter*, | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡◡ |
| līfe hăth ĭts | plēasŭres bŭt | fădĭng ăre | thēy ăs thĕ | flōwĕrĕt |
6.—*Hexameter*,
| - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡ ◡ | - ◡◡ |
| ōvĕr thĕ | vāllĕy wĭth | spēed lĭke thĕ | wĭnd ăll thĕ | steēds wĕre ă | gāllŏpĭng |

ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviate means to shorten.

The abbreviation of a word or title is a short form of that word or title; one or more letters standing for the whole word or title.

Much care should be used in the use of abbreviations. Abbreviations must always be followed with a period.

Titles must not be abbreviated unless in connection with the name of a person; as, Lieut. Frank A. Sommer.

The names of States should be abbreviated only when joined with the name of a city, town, or county.

The names of the months are abbreviated only when used with the day of the month and the year.

List of Abbreviations

DAYS OF THE WEEK

Mon.—Monday
Tues.—Tuesday
Wed.—Wednesday
Thurs.—Thursday
Fri.—Friday
Sat.—Saturday
Sun.—Sunday

MONTHS OF THE YEAR

Jan.—January
Feb.—February
Mar.—March
Apr.—April
Aug.—August
Sept.—September
Oct.—October
Nov.—November
Dec.—December

May, June, and July are not abbreviated.

GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES

Al. or Ala.—Alabama
Ari. or Ariz.—Arizona
Ark.—Arkansas
Cal.—California
Col. or Colo.—Colorado
Conn. or Ct.—Connecticut
D. C.—District of Columbia
Del.—Delaware
Fla.—Florida
Ga.—Georgia
Ia. or Io.—Iowa
Id. or Ida.—Idaho
Ill.—Illinois
Ind.—Indiana
Ind. Ter. or I. T.—Indian Territory
Kan. or Kas.—Kansas
Ky.—Kentucky
La.—Louisiana
Minn.—Minnesota
Mass.—Massachusetts
Md.—Maryland
Me.—Maine
Mich.—Michigan
Miss. or Mi.—Mississippi
Mo.—Missouri
N. A.—North America
N. C.—North Carolina
N. D. or N. Dak.—North Dakota
Neb. or Nebr.—Nebraska
Nev.—Nevada
N. H.—New Hampshire
N. J.—New Jersey
N. M. or N. Mex.—New Mexico
N. Y.—New York
O.—Ohio
Or.—Oregon
Pa. or Penn.—Pennsylvania
Phila.—Philadelphia
R. I.—Rhode Island
S. C.—South Carolina
S. D. or S. Dak.—South Dakota
Tenn.—Tennessee
Tex.—Texas
U. S.—United States
U. S. A.—United States of America
Va.—Virginia
Vt.—Vermont
Wash.—Washington
Wis.—Wisconsin
W. Va.—West Virginia
Wyo.—Wyoming

TITLES

Capt.—Captain
Col.—Colonel
Cor. Sec.—Corresponding Secretary
D.D.—Doctor of Divinity
D.D.S.—Doctor of Dental Surgery
Dr.—Doctor
Esq.—Esquire
Gen.—General
Gov.—Governor
Hon.—Honorable
Lieut. or Lt.—Lieutenant
LL.D.—Doctor of Laws
M. D.—Doctor of Medicine
Messrs. or M.M.—Gentlemen
Mr.—Mister or Master
Mrs.—Mistress
Ph.D.—Doctor of Philosophy
Pres.—President
Prof.—Professor
Rev. — Reverend (clergyman)
Sec.—Secretary
Treas.—Treasurer

BUSINESS TERMS

Acc. or acct.—Account
Amt. or amt.—Amount
Ans. or ans.—Answer
Co.—Company
C. O. D.—Collect on Delivery
Cr.—Credit or creditor
Dr.—Debtor
Mdse. or mdse.—Merchandise
Recd.—Received

MISCELLANEOUS ABBREVIATIONS

A. D. (*Anno Domini*).—In the year of our Lord
A. M. (*Ante Meridiem*).—Before noon
Anon.—Anonymous
Ave.—Avenue
B. C.—Before Christ
Co.—County
Do. or do (*Ditto*).—The same; as aforesaid
Etc. or &c.—And so forth; and others
I. E. or i. e.—That is
Inst.—Instant or of the present month
Jr. or Jun.—Junior
No.—Number
P. M. (*Post Meridiem*).—Afternoon
P. O.—Postoffice
Prox. (*Proximo*).—Next or of the next month
P. S.—Postscript
R. R.—Railroad
Sr. or Sen.—Senior
St.—Street
Ult. (*Ultimo*).—Last or of the last month
Viz. or viz.—Namely or to wit

Exercise I

Is it correct to abbreviate the words in *italic* in the following sentences? Why?

1. James went to see the *doctor*.
2. The train arrived *before noon*.
3. He was elected *lieutenant*.
4. Mary visited us in *August*.
5. Coal is found in *Pennsylvania*.
6. The letter was *received* at the *postoffice last month*.
7. It was an *honorable* action.
8. The tracks of the *railroad* were washed away.
9. The game will be played on *Saturday*.
10. *Texas* is larger than *New York*.

Exercise II

Make all proper abbreviations in these sentences:

1. Colonel Alfred Graham and Captain James Hess were present at the meeting held at Wheeling, West Virginia, January 14, 1909.
2. Doctor Frank Wilson resides at 192 North Thirtieth Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
3. Reverend Charles Sommer delivered the address.
4. Connecticut is south of Massachusetts.
5. It was half-past nine o'clock in the morning when the train arrived at the Pennsylvania Railroad Station.

WORDS OFTEN INCORRECTLY USED

The following words and phrases are often incorrectly used for each other.

Care should be taken to have the various distinctions clearly understood and memorized. Much drill work should be given in the proper use of each word or phrase, being careful that the correct reason for the use of the right word or phrase is clearly comprehended and given.

Almost—Most:

Almost means nearly, all but; as, "I *almost* touched the stove."

Most means greater number or quantity; as, "*Most* boys like to play."

Among—Between:

Among is used in referring to more than two objects; as, "The books were divided *among* the boys and the girls."

Between is used in referring to two objects; as, "The books were divided *between* the boy and the girl."

Angry—Mad:

Angry means much displeased at a wrong, enraged; as, "Harry's father was *angry* because he did not know his lessons."

Mad means insane, crazy, out of one's mind; as, "The man was sent to the asylum because he was *mad*."

Any—Either:

Any means one of more than two; as, "*Any* one of the class may go."

Either means one of the two; as, "*Either* Frank or Samuel may go."

As—Like:

As is used in comparison when the verb follows; as, "You may do *as* I do."

Like is used in comparisons when it may be followed by *to;* as, "James, *like* (to) his father, is interested in electricity."

Do not use *like* as a conjunction.

Begin—Commence:

Begin is used either with persons or things, and is preferred for ordinary use; as, "*Begin* to work."

Commence is used when speaking of persons only, and is preferred in more formal associations; as, "*Commence* the operation."

"They *began* (or *commenced*) the journey." "The day *began* (not *commenced*) to dawn."

Bought of—Bought off of:

Do not use *Bought off of;* as, "I *bought* this *of* Mr. Wilson"; not, "I *bought* this *off of* Mr. Wilson."

Can—May:

Can is used to indicate power or ability; as, "A fish *can* swim in water."

May is used is asking or granting permission; also to indicate probability; as, "The bell rang, you *may* go now."

Correspond to—Correspond with:

Correspond to a thing; as, "The fashions of to-day *correspond to* those of ten years ago."

Correspond with a person; as, "I *correspond with* Mary."

Doesn't—Don't:

Doesn't means does not; as, "He *doesn't* know how to do the example."

Don't means do not; as, "They *don't* know how to do the example."

Each Other—One Another:

Each other is used in referring to two persons or things: as, "Mr. Jones and his wife loved *each other* very much."

One another is used in referring to more than two persons or things; as, "There were five children in the family and they loved *one another*."

Either, or—Neither, nor:

Do not use *or* with *neither*. The proper correlative for *neither* is *nor;* as, "*Neither* the horses *nor* the driver saw the obstruction."

Enough—Plenty:

Enough means all that is required to satisfy the mind; as, "He has *enough* whose desires are satisfied."

Plenty means sufficient to fill (as a vessel), sufficient to supply one's needs; as, "He has *plenty* whose needs are supplied."

The miser may have *plenty* of money, but not *enough*.

Expect—Suppose:

Expect is used in the sense of looking forward to, as something that will occur; as, "I *expect* to go to-morrow."

Expect is often improperly used in referring to past time.

Suppose means to regard as if true, to believe; as, "I *suppose* he was sick."

For—Of:

Use *of* after *need*, not *for;* as, "I had need *of* many things before I could go to work."

From—Than or **To:**

Use *from* after *different*, not *than* or *to;* as "The climate of California is different *from* that of Maine."

Good—Nice:

Good means righteous, virtuous, religious, possessing desirable qualities. *Good* tells us a quality of a person or thing; as, "That is a *good* horse."

Nice means exact, delicate, refined, dainty; as, "There is a *nice* distinction in the meaning of 'love' and 'like.'"

Good—Well:

Good (adjective) means righteous, virtuous, religious, possessing desirable qualities. *Good* tells us a quality of a person or thing; as, "Frank is a *good* boy." "The boy is *good*."

Well (usually an adverb) tells how something is done; as, "He ran *well*."

Had ought—Ought:

Do not use *had* with *ought;* as, "He *ought* to write his lessons"; not, "He *had ought* to write his lessons."

Ought is used only in the present and past tenses.

Happen—Transpire:

Happen means to come to pass accidentally, to occur; as, "Tell us what *happened*."

Transpire means to leak out, to escape from secrecy; as, "Although it was a secret meeting, within one hour all that happened *transpired*."

In—Into:

In is used to denote position or state; as, "The book is *in* the drawer." "The boy is *in* school."

Into is used when referring to motion; as, "The boy went *into* the school."

Persons or things are *in* places or positions, but they move *into* or are moved *into* places or positions.

Lay—Lie:

Lay—laid—laid (transitive) means to place, to put, to cause to lie; as, "*Lay* the book on the table." *Lay, laid, laid* must always have a receiver of the action.

Lie—lay—lain (intransitive) means to recline, to be at rest in a horizontal position; as, "*Lie* on the bed."

Learn—Teach

Learn means to fix in mind, to acquire knowledge, to acquire skill in; as, "I *learned* my lessons." "I *learned* how to ride a bicycle."

Teach means to guide in learning, to direct in studies, to give instruction or knowledge; as, "I will *teach* you the lesson." "I will *teach* you to ride a bicycle."

One *learns* oneself and *teaches* others, although one may *teach* oneself.

Leave—Let:

Leave means to quit, to abandon, to go away from; as, "*Leave* the book on the table."

Let means to allow, to permit; as, "Please *let* me do it."

Like—Love:

Like means to enjoy, to be pleased with; as, "Mary *likes* flowers."

Love means to regard with affection; as, "John *loves* his mother."

Might have—Might of:

Do not use *might of* in place of *might have;* as, "I *might have* seen the game"; not, "I *might of* seen the game."

On—Upon:

On is preferred when merely rest or support is to be indicated; as, "The book is *on* the table."

Upon is preferred when superposition or motion up into position is to be indicated; as, "Place one sheet *upon* another." "The cat jumped *upon* the table."

On is gradually replacing *upon*, except when the idea of superposition is to be indicated.

Past Tense Forms:

Never use did, spoke, grow, threw, drew, shook, rode, saw, ate, or any other past tense form with the auxiliary *have* (have, having, has, hast, had) or with the auxiliary *be* (am, be, being, is, are, art, was, wast, were, wert, been).

Pleasant—Pretty:

Pleasant means that which pleases, delightful; it refers to the effect on a person; as, "A *pleasant* view is one that pleases."

Pretty means neat, elegant; it refers to the qualities of the object. "A *pretty* scene," means that the parts of the scene put together make a neat, elegant scene.

Propose—Purpose:

Propose means to suggest, to offer for consideration; as, "John *proposed* that we go to-morrow."

Purpose means to intend, to resolve; as, "I purpose to do so to-morrow."

Raise—Rise:

Raise (transitive) means to lift, to exalt, to erect something; as, "*Raise* the window."

Rise (intransitive) means to get up, to arise; as, "John, *rise*."

Real—Really:

Real (adjective) means true, actual, genuine, not imaginary; as, "This is a *real* diamond."

Really (adverb) means actually, in a real manner, truly; as, "I am *really* glad you came."

Real—Very:

Do not use *real* for *very* in sentences like "He is *very* sick."

Received from—Received of:

Do not use *from* in place of *of* after received; as, "Received *of* Mr. Jones"; not, "Received *from* Mr. Jones."

Said—Says:

Do not use *says* for *said;* as, "I said to him, 'I am going'": not, "I *says* to him, 'I am going.'"

Set—Sit:

Set (transitive) means to put, to place in position; as, "I *set* the pitcher on the table."

Usage allows, "The sun *sets*." "*Setting* sun."

Sit (intransitive) means to rest as on a chair, with the body bent at the hips; as, "*Sit* on the bench."

Shall—Will:

Shall is used in the first person to express simple futurity, and in the second and third persons to express determination; as, "I *shall* go" (simple futurity). "You *shall* go" (determination). "They *shall* go" (determination).

Will is used in the first person to express determination, and in the second and third persons to express simple futurity; as, "I *will* go" (determination). "You *will* go" (simple futurity). "They *will* go" (simple futurity).

Should—Would:

Should follows the same rule as *shall*. It also sometimes has the meaning of ought (obligation).

Would follows the same rule as *will*.

Unless—Without:

Unless is used to introduce clauses; "I will not go *unless* James will go along."

Without is usually used before an object; as, "I will not go *without* James."

Do not use *without* as a conjunction.

Exercise I

State the difference in meaning of sentences 1 and 2, 3 and 4, etc.

1. Can we go home this way?
2. May we go home this way?

3. Mary is good.
4. Mary is well.

5. The fortune was divided equally between the mother and the children.
6. The fortune was divided equally among the mother and the children.

7. There is peace between the nations.
8. There is peace among the nations.

9. The man was mad.
10. The man was angry.

11. I will do this example.
12. I shall do this example.

13. The glutton said, "I have eaten plenty."
14. The glutton said, "I have eaten enough."

15. I came to learn geography.
16. I came to teach geography.

17. The boy learned the lesson.
18. The boy taught the lesson.

Exercise II

Select the proper word in *italic* in the following sentences, and give your reason:

1. Only a giant *may* (*can*) lift that great weight.
2. *Sit* (*set*) the chair on the floor.
3. Mary *sat* (*set*) up late studying her lessons.

4. I have been *sitting* (*setting*) all morning.
5. The work was done *good* (*well*).
6. The fortune was divided *between* (*among*) his five sons.
7. Leave a blank line *between* (*among*) your answers.
8. I was *mad* (*angry*) and did not hold my tongue.
9. The man who escaped from the asylum was *mad* (*angry*).
10. I *like* (*love*) Mary.
11. James *likes* (*loves*) to play ball.
12. Howard *likes* (*loves*) his brother.
13. We *shall* (*will*) have a clear day to-morrow.
14. He is afraid that he *shall* (*will*) lose it.
15. *Shall* (*will*) I put coal on the fire?
16. The bucket is not quite full, but I have *plenty* (*enough*) to fill it.
17. *Lie* (*lay*) down and go to sleep.
18. The books *lay* (*lie*) on the table, while Frank was *laying* (*lying*) asleep.
19. The pencil has *lain* (*laid*) on the desk for an hour.
20. *Lie* (*lay*) the chart on the bench.
21. Mary had *lain* (*laid*) the letter on the desk before James collected it.
22. His lesson is *most* (*almost*) studied.
23. Congress has passed *most* (*almost*) of the bills.
24. The time has *most* (*almost*) come.
25. Are these *really* (*real*) diamonds?
26. Is it *real* (*really*) true that he has gone?
27. He is *real* (*very*) sick.
28. The book was sent *in* (*into*) a box.
29. The book was thrown *in* (*into*) a box.
30. My book is *like* (*as*) that.
31. My book is torn *like* (*as*) that one is torn.
32. You will have need *of* (*for*) your overcoat to-night.
33. Pennsylvania's productions are different *to* (*from*) those of Florida.
34. Please *leave* (*let*) me go.
35. This matter I *leave* (*let*) with you.

36. *Leave* (*let*) go of the rope.
37. He was too weak to *raise* (*rise*) his head.
38. The water has *risen* (*raised*) in the vessel.
39. The water has *risen* (*raised*) the boat.
40. Set the bread to *raise* (*rise*).
41. Did you *learn* (*teach*) him how to do it?
42. I will *learn* (*teach*) you how to draw the map.
43. I *purpose* (*propose*) that we study first and play afterward.
44. I *purpose* (*propose*) to win the prize.
45. What occurred at the secret meeting did not *happen* (*transpire*).
46. What *happened* (*transpired*) at the meeting?
47. We cannot go *without* (*unless*) the train stops at the station.
48. We cannot go in *without* (*unless*) we have a ticket.
49. We cannot go in *without* (*unless*) a ticket.
50. The train *began* (*commenced*) to move.
51. I do not *expect* (*suppose*) that you were at the meeting.
52. The two lines cross *each other* (*one another*).
53. Happy are parents and children when they love *each other* (*one another*).
54. He corresponds regularly *with* (*to*) his brother.
55. *Of* (*from*) whom was the money received?
56. The apple was *ate* (*eaten*) by John.
57. The officer, having *drew* (*drawn*) the map of the country, showed it to the commander.
58. Neither the president *or* (*nor*) the secretary was absent.
59. The catcher has *threw* (*thrown*) the ball.
60. James said, "I have *saw* (*seen*) the picture."

LETTER WRITING

Letter writing is of special importance, as it is the most frequently used form of written language.

Custom has set certain forms for letter writing. These forms should be memorized by the pupil and followed closely in practice.

Letter Form

[Heading]

[Address]

[Salutation]

[Body of Letter]

[Complimentary Close]

[Signature]

This form is modified for letters of close friendship by the omission of the "address."

Letter of Friendship

3541 Girard Avenue,
Phila., Pa., Aug. 12, 1910.

My dear Mother,

We arrived safely _____

_____

_____

_____

Your loving son,
James.

The Salutation.—The form of salutation depends on the degree of intimacy with the person to whom you are writing.

The following salutations are used in familiar letters:

Dear Father,	Dear Frank,
My dear Dorothy,	Dear Miss Budd,
Dear Uncle Harry,	My dear Mr. Wilson,

Custom varies regarding the mark of punctuation following the salutation. The comma (,), the comma and dash (,—), the colon (:), and colon and dash(:—) are used, depending on the degree of formality desired. The comma is the least formal, and the colon and dash the most formal.

The Closing.—The closing of a letter should correspond to the salutation—*i. e.*, it should indicate the same degree of intimacy. Closings for familiar letters are:

Your loving daughter,	Affectionately yours,
Lovingly yours,	Your devoted son,
Cordially yours,	Very sincerely yours,
Your sincere friend,	Your affectionate friend,

Notice especially that only the first word of the closing begins with a capital.

Formal Letters of Friendship

In formal letters of friendship the "address" is usually written:

1811 Bay Avenue,
Boston, Mass., July 3, 1910.

Mr. William H. Dunn,
402 Wayne Street,
West Chester, Pa.

My dear Mr. Dunn:

or

1811 Bay Avenue,
Boston, Mass., July 3, 1910.

Mr. William H. Dunn,
West Chester, Pa.

My dear Mr. Dunn:

The closings of formal letters in common use are:

Respectfully yours,	Yours truly,
Very respectfully yours,	Very truly yours,

GENERAL DIRECTIONS

1. *The Paper.*—The paper should be unruled. In letters of friendship the double sheet letter paper is usually used. In business letters only the single sheet paper is used.

2. *The Arrangement.*—If your letter will cover more than one side of the paper, place the first line of the "heading" about two inches from the top of the sheet. If it will cover less than one page, place the letter so that it will be equally distant from the top and the bottom of the sheet.

A margin of about one-half inch is usually allowed on the left, running the entire length of the paper.

Divide the body of your letter into paragraphs, in accordance with the usual rules of paragraphing. Indent the first word of each paragraph.

3. *The Punctuation.*—Follow the punctuation in the forms very closely. Owing to the great number of marks of punctuation, many are apt to be omitted.

Exercises

1. Suppose you are staying at 812 North Broad Street, Niagara Falls, N. Y. Write a letter to your father describing some of the interesting events that occurred in your week away from home.

2. Suppose you are in Venice, Italy. Write a letter to one of your classmates, telling her of some of the peculiarities of that beautiful and interesting city.

3. Suppose your Uncle William sent you a book, which you desired for some time. Write a letter thanking him.

4. Write a letter to your Aunt Martha whom you have been visiting, telling her some of the incidents of the journey home and thanking her for her kindnesses during your visit.

5. Suppose you have been spending a week at the seashore. Write to your mother, telling her some of the pleasures you have had.

Business Letters

GENERAL DIRECTIONS

1. In business letters, the address is always written in full, name, place of business or residence of the firm or person addressed, city, or town and State.

2. The Salutation and Closing are *more formal* than they are in letters of friendship.

3. Business letters are usually brief. They are concise and to the point, but not necessarily abrupt.

Salutations.—The salutations most frequently used are:

Sir or Sirs:	Gentlemen:
Dear Sir or Dear Sirs:	Dear Madam:

The following forms of address are sanctioned by common usage:

To the President,
Executive Mansion,
Washington, D. C.
Sir:—

To Governors of States

To His Excellency, Edwin M. Stuart,
Governor of the State of Pennsylvania,
Harrisburg, Pa.
Sir:—

To Mayors of Cities, United States Senators and Representatives, and State Senators and Representatives

To the Hon. John E. Reyburn,
Mayor of the City of Philadelphia,
Philadelphia, Pa.
Sir:—

Closings of Business Letters.—The most common forms of closings are:

Yours truly,	Yours respectfully,
Very truly yours,	Very respectfully yours,
Yours very truly,	Respectfully yours,

LETTER ORDERING A MAGAZINE

208 North 18th Street,
Washington, D. C., May 12, 1910.

The Curtis Publishing Company,
421–427 Arch Street,
Philadelphia, Pa.
Gentlemen:

Enclosed you will find money order for one dollar and fifty cents ($1.50), for which please send me "The Ladies' Home Journal" for one year, beginning with the June issue.

Very truly yours,
(Mrs.) Margaret Burlong.

LETTER ORDERING GOODS

496 Market Street,
Lancaster, Pa., July 7, 1910.

R. J. Marshall & Co.,
860 Center Avenue,
Harrisburg, Pa.
Gentlemen:

Enclosed you will find a money order for two dollars ($2.00), for which please send me a copy of "Longfellow's Poems."

Very respectfully yours,
Watson S. Gara.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

860 Center Avenue,
Harrisburg, Pa., July 8, 1910.

Mr. Watson S. Gara,
496 Market Street,
Lancaster, Pa.
Dear Sir:

Your letter of yesterday, with money order for two dollars ($2.00) enclosed, was received this morning.

We are sending by this mail the copy of "Longfellow's Poems."

Yours truly,
R. J. Marshall & Co.

LETTER ENCLOSING RECEIPT

14 Franklin Square,
New York, N. Y., Oct. 29, 1909.

Messrs. Brown & Dennison,
426 Main Street,
Chicago, Ill.
Dear Sirs:

We are in receipt of your esteemed favor of the 23d inst., enclosing check for eight hundred and twenty-three dollars ($823.00), for which please accept our sincere thanks. Enclosed you will find receipt.

Truly yours,
A. B. Williams Co.

APPLICATION FOR A POSITION

1218 Chester Street,
Phila., Pa., July 12, 1910.

Messrs. Smith & Davidson,
204 Market Street.,
Phila., Pa

Dear Sirs:

Having seen your advertisement for a boy in the "Public Ledger" of this date, I venture to apply for the position.

As to my qualifications, I refer you to my teacher, Miss Mary A. Holmes, West Public School, this city; and to Messrs. Jones & Cantle, 118 South Sixth Street, this city, by whom I was employed on Saturdays.

Hoping to hear from you, I am

Respectfully yours,

James Brown.

Exercises

1. Write to Funk and Wagnalls Company, 44–60 E. 23d Street, New York, enclosing a money order for three dollars in payment of a subscription for one year for "The Literary Digest." Tell when you want the subscription to begin.

2. Write to a grocer in your neighborhood ordering at least five articles.

3. Write to the Curtis Publishing Company, 421–427 Arch Street, Philadelphia, telling them to change your address for your subscription for "The Saturday Evening Post." Give both the old and the new address.

4. Write to James Vansant & Co., 18 Mott Street, Boston, Massachusetts, telling them that you have not received the goods shipped by them ten days ago.

5. Write the letter which Messrs. Thompson & Earle, 146 State Street, Chicago, Illinois, sent you acknowledging the receipt of your order and telling how the goods were shipped.

6. Suppose you have heard that the James Brown Company, of 124 Central Avenue, your city, desires an office boy. Write a letter applying for the position.

7. Write to some college asking them to mail you a catalogue.

8. Write to the publishers of your geography, asking them the price of a single copy.

9. Write the heading, address, and salutation for letters to the following: To the principal of your school, to the Mayor of your city, to the Governor of the State in which you live, to the President of the United States.

10. Write a letter applying for a position in answer to some advertisement in this morning's paper.

11. Write to Mr. John A. Martin, 12 South 8th Street, your city, requesting him to give you an estimate on the cost of painting your home.

INVITATIONS

Invitations may be formal or informal. Informal invitations, acceptances, and regrets are of the same form as letters of friendship, with the exception that the heading is placed at the close of the letter instead of at the beginning.

INFORMAL INVITATION

My dear Mr. Burns,

Miss Wilson is visiting us for a few days and we are inviting a few friends to meet her on Tuesday next. Will you join us at dinner at seven o'clock that evening?

Very sincerely,
Mary F. Harned.

1362 South Fourth Street,
May 10, 1908.

ACCEPTANCE

My dear Mrs. Harned,

It will give me much pleasure to dine with you on Tuesday next and meet Miss Wilson.

Cordially yours,
J. Howard Burns.

106 Bank Street,
May 11, 1908.

REGRETS

My dear Mrs. Harned,

Owing to severe illness in the family, I regret that I cannot accept your kind invitation to dinner and meet Miss Wilson on Tuesday next.

Cordially yours,
J. Howard Burns.

106 Bank Street,
May 11, 1908.

FORMAL INVITATION

Formal invitations, acceptances, and regrets are, as you would suppose, very formal. They are written in the third person.

INVITATION

Mr. and Mrs. Harvey Beecher request the pleasure of Mr. William A. Dunsmore's company at dinner on Tuesday, June tenth, at seven o'clock.

428 Glenn Avenue,
June first.

ACCEPTANCE

Mr. William A. Dunsmore accepts with pleasure Mr. and Mrs. Harvey Beecher's invitation to dinner on Tuesday, June tenth, at seven o'clock.

456 Michigan Avenue,
June second.

REGRETS

Mr. William A. Dunsmore regrets that a previous engagement prevents his acceptance of Mr. and Mrs. Harvey Beecher's invitation to dinner on Tuesday, June tenth, at seven o'clock.

456 Michigan Avenue,
June second.

NOTES

A note is usually very brief and lacks much of the formality of a letter.

NOTES OF EXCUSE

My dear Miss Wilson,

Kindly excuse George's absence from school yesterday, as he was ill.

Respectfully yours,
James R. Gorman.

June tenth.

Dear Mr. Loughead,

Mildred was detained by the dentist this morning. I hope you will pardon her lateness.

Yours sincerely,
(Miss) Alice V. Jones.

May eleventh.

Exercises

1. Suppose your father and mother are inviting a number of friends to dinner on next Friday evening at six o'clock. Write the formal invitation sent to Miss Frances Hengen.
2. Write the acceptance sent by Miss Hengen.
3. Suppose Miss Hengen had another engagement for that evening Write her reply.

4. Suppose you were ill yesterday afternoon. Write the note which your mother would give you for your teacher.

5. Suppose you have your "Class Day" on Thursday afternoon at three o'clock. Write an informal invitation to one of your playmates.

6. Write the reply of your playmate.

7. James Wilson will be twenty-one years of age on June twelfth, this year, and will give a dinner at seven o'clock on that evening. Write the formal invitation that he would send to Frank Burke.

8. Write the acceptance sent by Mr. Burke.

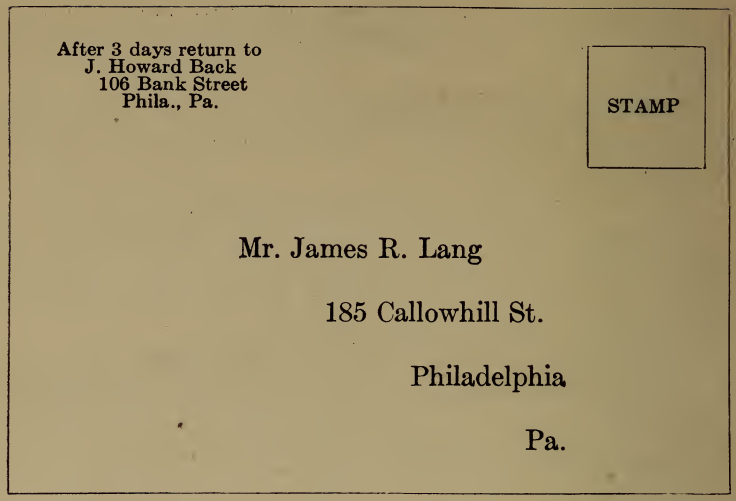
9. Suppose you plan to have a number of your friends spend the evening of next Wednesday at your home. Write an informal invitation sent to one of them.

10. Write an informal invitation to the President of the Board of School Directors of your city, asking him to address your literary society on Friday afternoon.

THE SUPERSCRIPTION

The *superscription* includes the name and the address of the person to whom the letter is written. All punctuation marks at the ends of the lines of the superscription are now generally omitted unless required by abbreviations.

The return information should be placed in the upper left-hand corner of the envelope. This is of much importance, in order that the letter can be returned, in case it cannot be delivered to the proper party, owing to incorrect address, etc.



Exercises

Draw rectangles for envelopes and then write the following superscriptions, using your own name and residence for the return information:

1. To the principal of your school.
2. To Rev. James R. Morton, 1814 W. 133d St., New York, N. Y.
3. To Messrs. Brown & Dreer, Bullitt Building, Philadelphia, Pa.
4. To Mr. John A. Shale, Cincinnati, Ohio, Post Office Box 184.
5. To Mrs. Lydia Longstreth, who is staying at "The Traymore," Atlantic City, New Jersey.
6. To J. Armit Brown & Co., who are in business in Lansdale, Pennsylvania.
7. To Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, book publishers, at 1412 Arch Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
8. To Miss Mary Watson, who is visiting her aunt, Mrs. James A. Watson, 14 So. 18th Street, Reading, Pennsylvania.

RECEIPTS

A RECEIPT ON ACCOUNT

$160.00. Washington, D. C., May 6, 1908.

Received of James R. Montgomery One Hundred Sixty Dollars on account.

Edward Winton.

A RECEIPT IN FULL

$1985.50. Albany, N. Y., March 2, 1909.

Received of Mary A. Scott One Thousand Nine Hundred Eighty-five and $\frac{50}{100}$ Dollars in full of all demands to date.

Maurice Fencil.

RECEIPTS TO APPLY TO A PARTICULAR PURPOSE

$108.60. Phila., Pa., Sept. 6, 1908.

Received of Ray A. Winner One Hundred Eight and $\frac{60}{100}$ Dollars in payment of amount due for services to date.

William A. Metzgar, M. D.

$62.50. Columbus, Ohio, July 1, 1910.

Received of George D. Roberts Sixty-two and $\frac{50}{100}$ Dollars for rent of house 712 N. 6th Street, for the month of July.

Jacob Rowan.

COMPOSITION

GENERAL DIRECTIONS

1. Use paper about eight or nine inches wide and about fourteen inches in length, with a margin of one to one and a half inches to the left.

2. Place the title of the composition on the top line, about midway from the margin to right edge of paper. All important words of the title must begin with capitals; prepositions, conjunctions, and articles do not begin with capitals unless they are the first word of the title.

3. Leave a blank line after the title and begin the first paragraph on the third line.

4. Begin each paragraph with a capital and indent the first word 1 inch from the margin.

5. Use figures in writing dates, as Jan. 17, 1897, and in addresses. In most other cases express the numbers in words.

6. Most writers agree that there is but one way to improve composition—*write, write, write.* Efficiency comes through constant practice; practice with a view to improve, based on the study of the best writers and of the rules governing their work.

7. Aim to write freely and correctly on a great variety of subjects.

Choice of Words

In composition much depends on the choice of words. Carelessness and indifference in this matter is the chief fault of many beginners. Constant reference to the dictionary and study of the writings of the best authors will improve your command of words.

To assist in the choice of words the following rules are given:

1. Be careful to use the correct part of speech and the correct form of that part of speech. This has been

discussed in many places in the "Parts of Speech" and in "Rules of Syntax." (See Exercises, pages 196 to 201.)

2. Avoid the too frequent repetition of the same word. If possible, use a synonym of the word instead of repeating it.

A **Synonym** is a word that has nearly the same or the same meaning as another.

Exercises

I. In the following select the words that are synonyms of other words in the list:

beg	subject	liberty
rise	gleam	consent
respect	cloudy	impostor
agree	revere	throw
accede	cheat	ascend
slow	terrify	shine
topic	entreat	forgive
frighten	freedom	indistinct
pardon	coincide	pray
hurl	tardy	scare

II. Select ten words from your dictionary and give a synonym for each.

3. Use the word which exactly expresses the meaning desired. Refer to "Words Often Incorrectly Used," pages 232 to 238.

Exercises

I. Give the difference in meaning of *cloudy* and *indistinct*. State the difference in meaning of the synonyms in the list above.

II. Exercise I, page 239.

4. Avoid the too frequent use of *got* and *have*. This error is especially prevalent in oral composition.

Instead of saying, "I got up, I got dressed, I got my breakfast, I got my books, I hurriedly got ready for school, but I got late," use the proper verbs; as, "I arose,

I dressed, I breakfasted, I picked up my books, I hurriedly put on my coat and cap, but I was late."

In place of "They have a house on Third Avenue. I have the deed. It has a tenant now," state, "They own a house on Third Avenue. I hold the deed. It is occupied by a tenant now."

5. Do not use *slang*. Many otherwise excellent addresses and essays are spoiled by a single slang word or phrase.

Sentences in Composition

Sentences should possess CLEARNESS, FORCE and UNITY.

CLEARNESS

Sentences should express the meaning desired in such a way that the reader or hearer cannot misinterpret it.

In the work in clearness the following should be kept in mind:

1. Use words to correctly express the desired meaning. (Numerous exercises will be found on pages 239 to 241.)

2. Place the word or words in such a position in the sentence that the meaning will be clear.

"James said, 'I *only* spent ten cents'"; he probably meant to say, "I spent *only* ten cents."

State the difference in meaning of these two sentences:

"Father almost gave me a dollar" and "Father gave me almost a dollar."

3. Do not omit a word that is necessary to clearly express the idea; as,

"The boy has a red and blue pencil."

"The boy has a red and a blue pencil."

What is the difference in the meaning of these two sentences?

4. Phrases and clauses improperly placed in the sentence frequently prevent clearness; as,

"Lost a gray horse by a man with a split hoof."

"He was writing rapidly when I entered quietly on a sheet of paper."

Exercises.

Rearrange the above sentences and those in Exercise II, page 144, so that the meaning will be expressed clearly.

5. Clearness is lost by a faulty use of pronouns; as,

"The man ran rapidly to Mr. Jones, crying that the fire had burned *his* house." Whose house was burned? Mr. Jones's or the man's?

6. Correct punctuation is necessary to clearness. (See Exercises, pages 215 to 219.)

FORCE

Sentences may be made more forceful or emphatic in the following ways:

1. Sentences are made more forceful by changing from a declarative to an interrogative or exclamatory form; as,

"He performs wonders." "What wonders he performs!"

"I have offended none." "Have I offended anyone?"

2. Direct instead of indirect quotations give greater force to sentences; as,

"John shouted for help." "John shouted, 'Help!'"

"His companion dared him to go swimming." "His companion said, 'I dare you to go swimming.'"

3. Repetition of a word or phrase often gives a sentence greater force; as,

"I see a sail." "A sail! A sail! I see a sail!"

"'Run!' shouted his playmates." "'Run! run! run!' shouted his playmates."

4. An unusual position of phrases or clauses frequently adds force to a sentence; as,

"I will pay you when I return." "When I return, I will pay you."

"I will go to-morrow." "To-morrow I will go."

"The fire burned rapidly on the other side of the building." "On the other side of the building the fire burned rapidly."

UNITY

A sentence should possess Unity—*i. e.*, the ideas included in the sentence should be very closely related.

1. Unity is destroyed by the too frequent use of *and*. The habit of joining a number of sentences by the use of *and* is especially prevalent in oral composition; as,

"The troops packed their knapsacks and started off at a swinging gait and soon reached the earthworks a few miles from the city and then they stormed these and then they took possession of the city."

"The troops packed their knapsacks and started off at a swinging gait. They soon reached and stormed the earthworks a few miles from the city. They then took possession of the city."

2. Unity is destroyed by the too frequent use of *relative pronouns;* as,

"Mr. Wilson gave his son who is away at college the house on the hill which is near the river which passes through the lower part of the town in which the college is located."

"Mr. Wilson gave his son who is away at college the house on the hill near the river. This river passes through the lower part of the town in which the college is located."

Exercise I

Correctly express the thought in the following sentences:

1. Mother, can I go? (Permission desired.)
2. Frank told William that his pencil was broken. (William's pencil.)
3. A white and black cow were in the field. (Two cows, one white, one black.)
4. I saw five dogs yesterday sitting on the porch.
5. The two men were out in the field working with straw hats.
6. Mr. Broad gave the book to the boy, with two torn pages.
7. A red and a blue bird is in the cage. (One bird.)

Exercise II

Try to express the thought in each of the following sentences with greater emphasis:

1. The wounded soldier called for water.
2. It was a great discovery.
3. The boys all told him to swim.
4. "Look!" exclaimed the men at that instant.
5. The sun shone brightly that morning.
6. That would seem to many men to be treason.
7. The army came rapidly from the West.

Exercise III

Correct the following:

1. The boys got into the boat and sailed toward the other shore and were having a delightful time when the wind rose suddenly and soon the rain fell and wet them thoroughly.

2. New York which was founded by the Dutch and which is on the Hudson River and which is the largest city in America and which is a great railroad centre receives more immigrants than any other city on this continent.

The Paragraph

A **Paragraph** is a group of sentences that relate to one subject or to one part of a subject.

The subject of thought of a paragraph is called the Topic of the Paragraph. Place in one paragraph *all* the sentences relating to the topic of the paragraph. Do not include in a paragraph any sentences not related to the topic.

Paragraphs, therefore, vary in length—some are short and some are long, depending on the amount stated in the topic.

Study the following paragraphs from Nathaniel Hawthorne's "The Great Stone Face":

So his mother told him a story that her own mother had told to her, when she herself was younger than Ernest; a story, not of things that were past, but of what was yet to come; a story, nevertheless, so very old, that even the Indians who formerly inhabited this valley, had heard it from their forefathers, to whom as they affirmed, it had been murmured by the mountain streams, and whispered by the wind among the tree-tops. The purport was, that at some future day, a child should be born hereabouts, who was destined to become the greatest and noblest personage of his time, and whose countenance, in manhood, should bear an exact resemblance to the Great Stone Face. Not a few old-fashioned people, and young ones likewise, in the ardor of their hopes, still cherished an enduring faith in this old prophecy. But others, who had seen more of the world, had watched and waited till they were weary, and had beheld no man with such a face, nor any man that proved to be much greater or nobler than his neighbors, concluded it to be nothing but an idle tale. At all events, the great man of the prophecy had not appeared.

"O mother, dear mother!" cried Ernest, clapping his hands above his head, "I do hope that I shall live to see him!"

His mother was an affectionate and thoughtful woman, and felt that it was wisest not to discourage the generous hopes of her little boy. So she only said to him, "Perhaps you may."

And Ernest never forgot the story that his mother told him. It was always on his mind, whenever he looked upon the Great Stone Face. . . . When the toil of the day was over, he would gaze at it for hours, until he began to imagine that those vast features recognized him, and gave him a smile of kindness and encouragement, responsive to his own look of veneration. . . ."

Notice that one sentence in each of the above paragraphs tells you the subject of that paragraph. Such sentences are called Topic Sentences. A **topic sentence** is the sentence in a paragraph which tells you the subject of thought of that paragraph. It is usually the first sentence. If all the sentences refer to the topic, the paragraph is said to possess Unity.

Exercise I

Write paragraphs with the following topic sentences:

1. The hunter finally realized that he was lost in the depths of the mountain.

2. The ice was hard and smooth, just the kind for skating.
3. Little did the passengers think of danger as they sat quietly in the cabin.
4. It snowed continually for twenty-four hours.
5. The class was finally ready and all started for the park.
6. After a long and tedious journey, I reached my destination.
7. The happy Christmas season had come and gone.
8. The men saw nothing but starvation ahead.

Exercise II

Write a paragraph on each of the following:

1. A Happy Occasion.
2. The Last Day of the School Term.
3. The First Snow-fall.
4. The Race.
5. The Broken Window.
6. An Unwelcome Visitor.
7. A Camel.
8. My Ambition.
9. Patriotism.
10. Benjamin Franklin.

Outlining

Just as the sentence and the paragraph require Unity, so the entire Composition must possess Unity. The topic of each paragraph must relate to the topic of the composition and should be so arranged that unity of thought will be maintained. It is, therefore, necessary to plan or outline your entire composition before writing it. Outlines should include the topic of each paragraph and the sub-topics within the paragraph. An outline presents to view the entire composition in such form that it may be readily understood.

The Nutting Party

I. The Introduction.—Desire of the boys and girls to go.
Uncle Ned's invitation.
II. The Preparation.— The meeting place.
The ride in the hay-wagon.
III. The Woods.— — The arrival.
Joy of the children.
Hunting and roasting the nuts.
The search for the missing girl.
IV. The Close.— — — The gathering darkness.
The return—tired, but happy.

Exercise

Make outlines for compositions on the following subjects:

1. A Fishing Trip.
2. The Championship Game.
3. Snow-bound.
4. Our Baby.
5. The Indians.
6. A Visit to a Coal-mine.
7. Old Harry.
8. The Tramp's Story.
9. The Unexpected.
10. The Old Umbrella.
11. A Visit to the Dentist.
12. A Big Fire.
13. Our Literary Society.
14. Pets.

Kinds of Composition

There are a number of different kinds of composition, but we shall discuss only three—Narration, Description, and Exposition.

NARRATION

A **Narration** is a story or tale, whether oral or written. Most literature belongs to this kind of composition. A long narration may contain descriptions and expositions. Narrations include fables, myths, fairy-tales, stories of adventure, romances, novels, and biographies.

It is especially necessary in narration to place the facts in proper order, and to include only such detail as is necessary to the story or to add interest to it. The attention of the reader or hearer should be held by reserving the climax until near the end.

The extract from "The Great Stone Face," found on pages 262, is an example of narration.

Exercise I

Write narrations on the following subjects:

1. The Biography of a Penny.
2. The Unfinished Picture.
3. The Laying of the Atlantic Cable.
4. The Old School Clock's Tale.
5. A Trip to Niagara Falls.
6. Thomas Jefferson.
7. The Pilgrims.
8. A Trip to the Moon.
9. The Accident.
10. Should Washington Return To-day.

Exercise II

Write stories on the following:

1. The father looked closely at his injured son and sorrowfully exclaimed, "Oh, how I wish he had obeyed his mother!"

2. The life-saving crew saw that the vessel offshore was sinking rapidly. Quickly launching the boat, they attempted to rescue those on board.

DESCRIPTION

In **Descriptions** are included all compositions that tell the appearance and character of persons, places, or things. A good description is one that *pictures* in such a manner that the subject of the description appears to the reader or hearer just as to the writer or speaker.

Descriptions should be clear, accurate, and pleasing. Careful observation is essential to description. You cannot give another a clear word-picture of a scene which is not *clear* to you.

Study the following paragraphs from Washington Irving's "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow":

In this by-place of nature there abode, in a remote period of American history, that is to say, some thirty years since, a worthy wight of the name of Ichabod Crane, who sojourned, or, as he expressed it, "tarried," in Sleepy Hollow, for the purpose of instructing the children of the vicinity. He was a native of Connecticut, a State which supplies the Union with pioneers for the mind as well as for the forest, and sends forth yearly its legions of frontier woodmen and country schoolmasters. The cognomen of Crane was not inapplicable to his person. He was tall, but exceedingly lank, with narrow shoulders, long arms and legs, hands that dangled a mile out of his sleeves, feet that might have served for shovels, and his whole frame most loosely hung together. His head was small and flat at top, with huge ears, large green glassy eyes, and a long snipe nose, so that it looked like a weathercock perched on his spindle neck, to tell which way the wind blew. To see him striding along the profile of a hill on a windy day, with his clothes bagging and fluttering about him, one might have mistaken him for the genius of famine descending upon the earth, or some scarecrow eloped from a cornfield.

His school-house was a low building of one large room, rudely constructed of logs; the windows partly glazed, and partly patched with leaves of copy-books. It was most ingeniously secured at vacant hours by a withe twisted in the handle of the door, and stakes set against the window-shutters, so that though a thief might get in with perfect ease, he would find some embarrassment in getting out, an idea most probably borrowed by the architect, Yost Van Houten, from the mystery of an eel-pot. The school-house stood in a rather lonely but pleasant situation, just at the foot of a woody

hill, with a brook running close by, and a formidable birch-tree growing at one end of it. From whence the low murmur of his pupils' voices, conning over their lessons, might be heard of a drowsy summer's day, like the hum of a beehive; interrupted now and then by the authoritative voice of the master, in the tone of menace or command; or, peradventure, by the appalling sound of the birch, as he urged some tardy loiterer along the flowery path of knowledge. Truth to say, he was a conscientious man, that ever bore in mind the golden maxim, "Spare the rod and spoil the child." Ichabod Crane's scholars certainly were not spoiled.

Suggestions for Description:

1. Carefully observe the subject of the description.
2. Outline.
3. Do not change your view point without indicating it.
4. Omit unnecessary detail.
5. Give the description a personal touch. How has this been done in the above selection from "The Legend of Sleepy Hollow"?

Exercises

Describe the following:

1. The School-room.
2. The Old House.
3. A Blacksmith Shop.
4. A Rainy Day in the City.
5. The Park after a Heavy Snow.
6. A Forest on the Amazon.
7. An Elephant.
8. The Miser.
9. My Classmate.
10. Our Doctor.
11. A Queer Old Man.
12. The Worst Boy in the School.
13. After the Battle.
14. The Newsboy.
15. A Morning on the Beach.
16. Quaint Costumes.

EXPOSITION

An **Exposition** is an explanation or interpretation of something. It includes all compositions that explain such things as games, recipes, processes, natural phenomena, and also numerous abstract ideas, joy, sympathy, love, and kindness.

In exposition it is especially necessary to be clear and accurate. Bear in mind always that your explanation must be so clear that your reader or hearer will readily understand.

Study the following:

Ring Tag

Ring Tag is played by boys, and yet girls would find it very enjoyable.

Draw a circle from twelve to fifteen feet in diameter and divide it into four equal parts. At each of the four points a small square is drawn resting on the inside of the circle, and numbered 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

The game is played by five boys, one in each of the squares, the other acts as referee. At a signal from the referee the game begins the four players running to the left, each boy tries to tag the boy ahead of him. When a boy is *tagged* he leaves the circle and the game continues until only one, the victor, is left.

Suggestions for Exposition:

1. Collect all the information possible by observation and by consulting books and persons.
2. Outline.
3. Bear in mind that it should be clear. If necessary, draw a diagram.
4. In expositions on abstract subjects; as, mercy, cowardice, etc., illustrate by example and incidents in history.

Exercises

1. Explain how to play your favorite game.
2. Tell how to multiply twenty-four by fifteen.

3. Explain how ice is made.
4. Tell how to sharpen a lead-pencil.
5. How are pins made?
6. Tell how to play "Hop-Scotch," "Quoits," or "Drop the Handkerchief."
7. Tell how a plant grows.
8. Write an exposition on courage, patriotism, or love of country.

PARAPHRASE

To **Paraphrase** a poem or other selection rewrite it in simpler form, using your own words wherever possible. A paraphrase is written in prose. Do not add to the original thought; do not change the original thought; merely reproduce the thought.

Paraphrasing is an excellent exercise for the student of composition. If properly conducted, it requires a thorough study of the original, and must result in a better command of words, a clearer understanding of the sentence and paragraph, and an appreciation of good English.

Suggestions for Paraphrasing:

1. Study the selection carefully with the view of obtaining a clear idea of the subject as a whole.
2. Find the meaning of each difficult word and phrase.
3. Separate the thoughts of the selection into groups or topics for outlining.
4. Outline.
5. Write your paraphrase, being careful to use your own words.

Exercises

Paraphrase any of the numerous selections found on pages 271–285.

SELECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

Exercise I

(*a*) Give the meaning of the difficult words in each stanza. (*b*) Give synonyms for three words in each stanza. (*c*) Express the thought of each sentence in your own words. (*d*) Paraphrase each selection—*i. e.*, give the meaning of each selection in your own words. (*e*) Select, define, and explain the figures of speech.

Exercise II

(*a*) Name the sentences in each selection. (*b*) Tell what kind of sentence each is by structure. Give your reasons (not merely definition). (*c*) Tell the kind of sentence each is by use. Give your reasons (not merely definition). (*d*) Name the dependent (?) clauses. Tell why each is a clause. (*e*) Classify the dependent clauses according to use and structure. Give your reasons. (*f*) Name the phrases. Tell what each phrase modifies. What kind of phrase is each according to structure and use? (*g*) Give the subject and predicate of each independent clause and of each dependent clause. (*h*) Name all the modifiers of the subject and predicate in each independent clause. (*i*) Write each sentence in prose order.

Exercise III

(*a*) Give the use of each word in the selection. (*b*) Give the use of each phrase. (*c*) Of each dependent clause.

Exercise IV

Parse each part of speech in the selection.

MEN are but children of a larger growth;
Our appetites as apt to change as theirs,
And full as craving too, and full as vain;
And yet the soul shut up in her dark room,
Viewing so clear abroad, at home sees nothing;
But like a mole in earth, busy and blind,
Works all her folly up, and casts it outward
To the world's open view.

THE clouds which rise with thunder slake
Our thirsty souls with rain;
The blow most dreaded falls to break
From off our limbs a chain;
And wrongs of man to man but make
The love of God more plain;
As, through the shadowy lens of even,
The eye looks farthest into heaven,
On gleams of star and depths of blue
The glaring sunshine never knew.

THESE our actors,
As I foretold you, were all spirits, and
Are melted into air, into thin air;
And, like the baseless fabric of this vision,
The cloud-capped towers, the gorgeous palaces,
The solemn temples, the great globe itself,
Yea, all which it inherit, shall dissolve,
And like this insubstantial pageant faded,
Leave not a rack behind. We are such stuff
As dreams are made of, and our little life
Is rounded with a sleep.

WHO can tell what a baby thinks?
Who can follow the gossamer links

By which the mannikin feels his way
Out from the shore of the great unknown,
Blind and wailing and alone
Into the light of day?
Out from the shore of the unknown sea,
Tossing in pitiful agony;
Of the unknown sea that reels and rolls,
Specked with the barks of little souls,—
Barks that were launched on the other side,
And slipped from Heaven on an ebbing tide?

WE knew it would rain, for all the morn
A spirit on slender ropes of mist
Was lowering its golden buckets down
Into the vapory amethyst

Of marshes and swamps and dismal fens;
Scooping the dew that lay in the flowers,
Dipping the jewels out of the sea,
To scatter them over the land in showers.

We knew it would rain, for the poplars showed
The white of their leaves, and the amber grain
Shrunk in the wind,—and the lightning now
Is tangled in tremulous skeins of rain.

YE whose hearts are fresh and simple,
Who have faith in God and Nature,
Who believe, that in all ages
Every human heart is human,
That in even savage bosoms,
There are longings, yearnings, strivings,
For the good they comprehend not,
That the feeble hands and helpless,
Groping blindly in the darkness,
Touch God's right hand in that darkness,
And are lifted up and strengthened;
Listen to this simple story,
To this Song of Hiawatha!

TAKE joy home,
And make a place in thy great heart for her,
And give her time to grow, and cherish her;
Then will she come and oft will sing to thee,
When thou art working in the furrows; ay,
Or weeding in the sacred hour of dawn.
It is a comely fashion to be glad;
Joy is the grace we say to God.

There is a rest remaining. Hast thou sinned?
There is a sacrifice. Lift up thy head:
The lovely world and the over-world alike
Ring with a song eterne, a happy rede:
"Thy Father loves thee."

FOR strength is born of struggle, faith of doubt,
Of discord law, and freedom of oppression:
We hail from Pisgah, with exulting shout,
The promised land below us, bright with sun,
And deem its pastures won,
Ere toil and blood have earned us the possession!
Each aspiration of our human earth
Becomes an act through keenest pangs of birth;
Each force, to bless, must cease to be a dream,
And conquer life through agony supreme;
Each inborn right must outwardly be tested
By stern material weapons, ere it stand
In the enduring fabric of the land,
Secured for those who yielded it, and those who wrested.

THE quality of mercy is not strained—
It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
Upon the place beneath: it is twice blessed;
It blesseth him that gives and him that takes;
'Tis mightiest in the mightiest; it becomes
The throned monarch better than his crown.
His sceptre shows the force of temporal power,
The attribute to awe and majesty,
Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings;

But mercy is above this sceptred sway,—
It is enthronéd in the hearts of kings;
It is an attribute to God himself;
And earthly power doth then show likest God's,
When mercy seasons justice.

WHEN I consider how my light is spent
Ere half my days, in this dark world and wide,
And that one talent which is death to hide,
Lodged with me useless, though my soul more bent
To serve therewith my Maker, and present
My true account, lest He, returning, chide;
"Doth God exact day labor, light denied?"
I fondly ask; but Patience, to prevent
That murmur, soon replies,—"God doth not need
Either's man's work, or His own gifts; who best
Bear His mild yoke, they serve Him best; His state
Is kingly; thousands at His bidding speed,
And post o'er land and ocean without rest;
They, also, serve who only stand and wait."

SAIL ON, sail on, thou ship of state,
Sail on, O Union, strong and great.
Humanity with all its fears,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate.
We know what Master laid thy keel,
What workmen wrought thy ribs of steel;
Who made each mast and sail and rope,
What anvils rang, what hammers beat.
Fear not each sudden sound and shock,
'Tis of the wave and not the rock.
'Tis but the flapping of the sail,
'Tis but a rent made by the gale.
In spite of rock and tempest's roar,
In spite of false lights on the shore;
Sail on, nor fear to breast the sea!
Our hearts, our hopes are all with thee.

BREATHES there a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land!
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
As home his footsteps he hath turned
From wandering on a foreign strand!
If such there breathe, go mark him well;
For him no minstrel raptures swell;
High though his titles, proud his name,
Boundless his wealth, as wish can claim;
Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
The wretch, concentred all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubly dying, shall go down
To the vile dust from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonored, and unsung.

SO you fell just now in the mud, poor heart!
And to try to rise and be clean is vain?
Take both my hands, now, and do your part,
So you stand on your feet again.
Did nobody tell you your feet might slip?
Did some one push you? Such things are done.
Was your path so rough that you needs must trip?
Ah! the blame is on many—not on one.
Sobbing still over that ugly stain?
I may not comfort or hush you, dear,
Through such sad tears in their burning rain
Christ and his cross show clear.
Must you go sorrowing all your day?
Dear, in suffering, souls grow white;
Keep my hand through the stony way—
See where the west turns bright.

THE snow had begun in the gloaming,
And busily all the night
Had been heaping field and highway
With a silence deep and white.

Every pine and fir and hemlock
Wore ermine too dear for an earl,
And the poorest twig on the elm-tree
Was ridged inch deep with pearl.

From sheds new-roofed with Carrara
Came Chanticleer's muffled crow,
The stiff rails were softened to swan's-down,
And still fluttered down the snow.

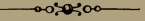
I stood and watched by the window
The noiseless work of the sky,
And the sudden flurries of snow-birds,
Like brown leaves whirling by.

I MOURN no more my vanished years:
Beneath a tender rain,
An April rain of smiles and tears,
My heart is young again.

The airs of spring may never play
Among the ripening corn,
Nor freshness of the flowers of May
Blow through the autumn morn;

Yet shall the blue-eyed gentian look
Through fringed lids to heaven,
And the pale aster, in the brook
Shall see its image given;

The woods shall wear their robes of praise,
The south-wind softly sigh,
And sweet, calm days in golden haze
Melt down the amber sky.



LIKE a blind spinner in the sun,
I tread my days;
I know that all the threads will run
Appointed ways;
I know each day will bring its task,
And, being blind, no more I ask.

I do not know the use or name
Of that I spin;
I only know that some one came
And laid within
My hand the thread, and said: "Since you
Are blind, but one thing you can do."

Sometimes the threads so rough and fast
And tangled fly,
I know wild storms are sweeping past,
And fear that I
Shall fall; but dare not try to find
A safer place, since I am blind.

OUT of the bosom of the air,
Out of the cloud-folds of her garments shaken,
Over the woodlands brown and bare,
Over the harvest-fields forsaken,
Silent and soft and slow
Descends the snow.

Even as our cloudy fancies take
Suddenly shape in some divine expression,
Even as the troubled heart doth make
In the white countenance confession,
The troubled sky reveals
The grief it feels.

This is the poem of the air,
Slowly in silent syllables recorded!
This is the secret of despair,
Long in its cloudy bosom hoarded,
Now whispered and revealed,
To wood and field.

ABOU BEN ADHEM—may his tribe increase!—
Awoke one night from a deep dream of peace,
And saw, within the moonlight in his room,
Making it rich and like a lily in bloom,
An angel writing in a book of gold.

Exceeding peace had made Ben Adhem bold,
And to the presence in the room he said,
"What writest thou?" The vision raised its head,
And with a voice made all of sweet accord,
Answered, "The names of those who love the Lord."

"And is mine one?" said Abou. "Nay, not so,"
Replied the angel. Abou spoke more low,
But cheerily still, and said, "I pray thee, then,
Write me as one who loves his fellow-men."

The angel wrote and vanished. The next night
It came again with a great wakening light,
And showed the names whom love of God had blessed
And lo! Ben Adhem's name led all the rest.

WHAT constitutes a state?
Not high-raised battlement or labored mound,
Thick wall or moated gate,
Nor cities proud with spires and turrets crowned;
Not bays and broad-armed posts,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.
No: men, high-minded men,
With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude;
Men who their duties know,
But know their rights, and knowing, dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain:
These constitute a state,
And sovereign Law, that state's collected will,
O'er thrones and globes elate
Sits empress, crowning good, repressing ill;
Smit by her sacred frown,
The fiend Discretion like a vapor sinks,
And e'en the all-dazzling Crown
Hides his faint rays, and at her bidding shrinks.

Lincoln's Address at Gettysburg.

THE world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

The Declaration of Independence.

IT will be "acted o'er," fellow-citizens, but it can never be repeated. It stands, and must forever stand, alone; a beacon on the summit of the mountain, to which all the inhabitants of the earth may turn eyes, for a genial and saving light, till time shall be lost in eternity, and this globe itself dissolve, nor leave a wreck behind. It stands forever, a light of admonition to the rulers of men, a light of salvation and redemption to the oppressed. So long as this planet shall be inhabited by human beings, so long as man shall be of a social nature, so long as government shall be necessary to the great moral purposes of society, so long as it shall be abused to the purposes of oppression—so long shall this Declaration hold out, to the sovereign and to the subject, the extent and the boundaries of their respective rights and duties, founded in the laws of nature and of nature's God.

John Quincy Adams.

A New Year's Resolve.

AS the dead year is clasped by a dead December,
So let your dead sins with your dead days lie.
A new life is yours, and a new hope! Remember
We build our ladders to climb to the sky.
Stand out in the promise of sunlight, forgetting
Whatever your past held of sorrow or wrong;
We waste half our strength in a useless regretting,
We sit by old tombs in the dark too long.

Have you missed in your aim? Well, the mark is still shining;
Did you faint in the race? Well, take breath for the next;
Did the clouds drive you back? But, see yonder their lining;
Were you tempted and fell? Let it serve for a text.
As each year hurries by let it join that procession
Of skeleton shapes that march down to the past.
While you take your place in the line of progression
With your eyes on the heavens, your face to the blast.

I tell you the future can hold no terrors
For any sad soul while the stars revolve,
If he will but stand firm on the grave of his errors,
And instead of regretting, resolve, resolve!
It is never too late to begin rebuilding,
Though all into ruins your life seems hurled.
For look! how the light of the New Year is gilding,
The worn, wan face of the bruised old world!

Ella Wheeler Wilcox.

Lines on a Skeleton.

BEHOLD this ruin! 'Twas a skull
Once of ethereal spirit full.
This narrow cell was Life's retreat,
This space was Thought's mysterious seat.
What beauteous visions filled this spot!
What dreams of pleasure long forgot!
Nor Hope, nor Joy, nor Love, nor Fear,
Have left one trace of record here.

Beneath this mouldering canopy,
Once shone the bright and busy eye;
But start not at the dismal void—
If social love that eye employed,
If with no lawless fire it gleamed,
But through the dews of kindness beamed,
That eye shall be forever bright
When stars and sun are sunk in night.

Within this hollow cavern hung
The ready, swift, and tuneful tongue.
If falsehood's honey it disdained,
And when it could not praise, was chained,
If bold in Virtue's cause it spoke,
Yet gentle concord never broke!
This silent tongue shall plead for thee
When time unveils Eternity.

The American Flag.

WHEN Freedom, from her mountain height,
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.
She mingled with its gorgeous dyes
The milky baldric of the skies,
And striped its pure, celestial white,
With streakings of the morning light;
Then, from his mansion in the sun,
She called her eagle bearer down,
And gave into his mighty hand
The symbol of her chosen land.

Majestic monarch of the cloud,
Who rear'st aloft thy regal form.
To hear the tempest trumpings loud
And see the lightning lances driven,
When strive the warriors of the storm,

And rolls the thunder-drum of heaven,
Child of the sun! to thee 'tis given
To guard the banner of the free,
To hover in the sulphur smoke,
To ward away the battle-stroke,
And bid its blendings shine afar,
Like rainbows on the cloud of war,
The harbingers of victory!

J. Rodman Drake.

"Down to Sleep."

NOVEMBER woods are bare and still;
November days are clear and bright;
Each noon burns up the morning's chill;
The morning's snow is gone by night;
Each day my steps grow slow, grow light,
As through the woods I reverent creep,
Watching all things lie "down to sleep."

I never knew before what beds,
Fragrant to smell, and soft to touch,
The forest sifts and shapes and spreads;
I never knew before how much
Of human sound there is in such
Low tones as through the forests sweep
When all wild things lie "down to sleep."

Each day I find new coverlids
Tucked in, and more sweet eyes shut tight;
Sometimes the viewless mother bids
Her ferns kneel down, full in my sight;
I hear their chorus of "good night;"
And half I smile, and half I weep,
Listening while they lie "down to sleep."

November woods are bare and still;
November days are bright and good;

Life's noon burns up life's morning chill;
Life's night rests feet which long have stood;
Some warm, soft bed, in field or wood,
The mother will not fail to keep
Where we can "lay us down to sleep."

Helen Hunt Jackson.

In School Days.

STILL sits the school-house by the road,
A ragged beggar sunning;
Around it still the sumachs grow,
And blackberry vines are running.

Within, the master's desk is seen,
Deep scarred by raps official;
The warping floor, the battered seats,
The jack-knife's carved initial—

The charcoal frescoes on its walls,
Its door's worn sill, betraying
The feet that, creeping slow to school,
Went storming out to playing!

Long years ago a winter's sun
Shone over it at setting;
Lit up its western window-panes,
And low eaves' icy fretting.

It touched the tangled golden curls,
And brown eyes full of grieving,
Of one who still her steps delayed
When all the school were leaving.

For near her stood the little boy
Her childish favor singled,
His cap pulled low upon a face
Where pride and shame were mingled.

Pushing with restless feet the snow
To right and left he lingered,
As restlessly her tiny hands
The blue-checked apron fingered.

He saw her lift her eyes; he felt
The soft hands light caressing,
And heard the trembling of her voice,
As if a fault confessing.

"I'm sorry that I spelt the word;
I hate to go above you,
Because"—the brown eyes lower fell—
"Because, you see, I love you!"

Whittier.

Love of Country and of Home.

THERE is a land, of every land the pride,
Beloved by heaven o'er all the world beside,
Where brighter suns dispense serener light,
And milder moons imparadise the night—
A land of beauty, virtue, valor, truth,
Time-tutored age, and love-exalted youth.
The wandering mariner, whose eye explores
The wealthiest isles, the most enchanting shores,
Views not a realm so beautiful and fair,
Nor breathes the spirit of a purer air;
In every clime, the magnet of his soul,
Touched by remembrance, trembles to that pole;
For, in this land of heaven's peculiar grace,
The heritage of nature's noblest race,
There is a spot of earth supremely blest,
A dearer, sweeter spot than all the rest,
Where man, creation's tyrant, casts aside
His sword and sceptre, pageantry and pride,
While in his softened looks benignly blend
The sire, the son, the husband, brother, friend.
Here woman reigns; the mother, daughter, wife,
Strews with fresh flowers the narrow way of life;

In the clear heaven of her delightful eye,
An angel-guard of loves and graces lie;
Around her knees domestic duties meet,
And fireside pleasures gambol at her feet.
"Where shall that land, that spot of earth be found?"
Art thou a man, a patriot? look around;
Oh! thou shalt find, howe'er thy footsteps roam,
That land thy country, and that spot thy home.

James Montgomery.

Paul Revere's Ride.

YOU know the rest. In the books you have read
How the British regulars fired and fled,—
How the farmers gave them ball for ball,
From behind each fence and farm-yard wall,
Chasing the red-coats down the lane,
Then crossing the fields to emerge again
Under the trees at the turn of the road,
And only pausing to fire and load.

So through the night rode Paul Revere;
And so through the night went his cry of alarm
To every Middlesex village and farm,—
A cry of defiance, and not of fear,—
A voice in the darkness, a knock at the door,
And a word that shall echo forevermore!
For, borne on the night-wind of the Past,
Through all our history to the last,
In the hour of darkness and peril and need,
The people will waken and listen to hear
The hurrying hoof-beat of that steed,
And the midnight-message of Paul Revere.

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